AN EXAMINATION OF AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP'S INFLUENCE ON SENSE OF COMMUNITY IN SPORT

A Dissertation

by

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation examined the influence of authentic leadership (AL) on sport sense of community (SOC). AL theory research has been mostly absent in sport management. Similarly, and despite the growing research stream within the discipline, sport SOC research has been limited from a leadership lens. Therefore, the purpose of the dissertation was to examine which dimensions of AL (balanced processing, internal moral compass, self-awareness, and relational transparency) influence the dimensions of sport SOC (administrative consideration, common interests, equity in decision-making, leadership opportunities, social spaces, and competition). The following research questions guided the dissertation:

RQ1: *Is authentic leadership associated with sport SOC?*

RQ2: *How do the dimensions of authentic leadership influence the dimensions of sport SOC?*

In order to test the above dimensions, the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) was used to measure authentic leadership while the Sense of Community in Sport (SCS) was used to measure sport SOC.

The current study used Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) to pull a random sample of individuals who currently work in a sport organization. They were asked to fill out a prescreening survey to validate their sport employment and were then asked to fill out two surveys 48 hours apart. The first survey included demographic variables and the ALQ items. Participants were then asked to take the second survey 48 hours later which detailed the SCS items.

Results from the correlation analysis indicated a weak and negative relationship between the AL dimensions and those dimensions of sport SOC. To assess RQ1, Multivariate Multiple Regression (MMR) was then performed to test the dimension-to-dimension relationships among AL and sport SOC dimensions. Results indicated AL relational transparency significantly influenced sport SOC administrative consideration, and AL self-awareness significantly influenced sport SOC equity in decision-making. Next, RQ2 was assessed through confidence interval testing which revealed AL dimensions to not be significantly different from one another in their influence on sport SOC. Overall, the dissertation illustrated limited support for AL's influence on sport SOC. Sport management scholars can use the current research to help guide future sport SOC and AL research, respectively.

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NOMENCLATURE

ALQ	Authentic Leadership Questionnaire
OC	Organizational Culture
SOC	Sense of Community
SCS	Sense of Community in Sport Scale

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Leadership remains a central topic of research among sport management scholars, characterized by the work performed over the last 40 years (see Welty Peachey, Damon, Zhou, & Burton, 2015 for a full review). The majority of this work, however, is grounded in transformational and transactional leadership theories (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978), with limited attention paid to other leadership approaches (Chelladurai, 1990; Doherty & Danylchuk, 1996; Kim, Magnusen, Andrew, & Stoll, 2012; Liu & Wang, 2007; Weese, 1995). For example, while servant leadership has garnered increased attention in the management discourse, sport management researchers have been limited in studying this leadership type (Burton & Welty Peachey, 2013; Parris & Welty Peachey, 2012; Welty Peachey & Burton, 2017). The majority of the researchers used servant leadership as a lens through which to view unethical leader behavior, which is an area not adequately addressed through the application of transformational and transactional leadership (Burton & Welty Peachey, 2013; Welty Peachey & Burton, 2017). Authentic leadership is another theory that has remained mostly absent from sport management research.

Authentic leadership is defined as a leader who possesses a strong moral compass, knows their own strengths and weaknesses, and allows for transparency among followers (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008). Recently, researchers have indicated the cross-pollination potential of authentic leadership in sport. For example, Lyubovnikova, Legood, Turner, and Mamakouka (2017) determined that authentic leadership can positively influence team performance. Leroy, Palanski, and Simons (2012) noted that authentic leadership can positively influence individual follower performance

and organizational commitment. While these studies illustrate the influence of authentic leadership on two levels of performance, Cerne et al. (2014) found that authentic leadership positively influenced follower job satisfaction and work engagement, which are outcomes supported by Neider and Schriesheim (2011). Banks, McCauley, Gardner, and Guler (2016), via a meta-analysis, found that when comparing transformational and authentic leadership, authentic leadership distinctively explained several behavioral outcomes above transformational (e.g., task performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, and group/organization performance). These outcomes are dimensions of organizational culture, which is shaped through leader-follower exchanges (Schneider, 1987). The importance of the relationship between leadership and organizational culture is epitomized by Schein (1990), who stated "… the only thing of real importance that leaders do is to create and manage culture" (p. 2). The outcomes associated with authentic leadership in other disciplines offer promise to exploring authentic leadership in sport. A first step has already been taken in this direction.

For example, Kim, Kim, and Reid (2017) recently integrated authentic leadership into the sport discourse in the context of a head football coach in intercollegiate sport. They found that psychological capital effectively mediated the relationship between authentic leadership and job satisfaction. Importantly, the authors found that authentic leadership did influence job and life satisfaction in sport. Further, research on authentic leadership is needed in sport to ascertain its full potential to explain organizational outcomes – especially those related to organizational culture (OC), a research domain in sport that requires additional attention (see Choi, Sagas, Park, & Cunningham, 2007; Schein, 2010; Tojari, Heris, & Zarei, 2011). Given the reciprocal nature of leadership and

OC (Schein, 2010; Yammarino, 2013), greater understanding of one should enhance the understanding of the other, since structure, decision-making, leading individuals, overall group performance, and satisfaction (Kim, Kim, & Reid, 2017; Pettigrew, 1987; Trevino, den Nieuwenboer, & Kish-Gephart, 2014; Tojari et al., 2011) are all interrelated aspects between OC and leadership. Recent sport research confirms this trend.

In particular, Tojari, Heris, and Zarei (2011) found that sport organizations that possess a strong OC (i.e., one that allows for participative decision-making, group goals, and flexible working methods), can garner a competitive advantage over those that do not own such a culture (see also Burnes & James, 1995; Eby, Adams, Russell, & Gaby, 2000; George, 2003). Azanza, Moriano, and Molero (2013) punctuated the relationship between authentic leadership, OC, and job satisfaction in the management discipline. Their study illustrated the positive influence of OC on job satisfaction when mediated by authentic leadership. Based on these works, it seems that if organizations wish to have satisfied employees, they should embed a positive OC through their authentic leaders. The high levels of identification and passion surrounding the sport product makes this research germane to the current study.

Incorporating authentic leadership to sport might also help improve researchers' understanding of the dynamic relationship between leadership and OC (Schein, 2010). For example, previous sport management researchers found that OC was significant indicator of employee job satisfaction and continuance commitment (MacIntosh & Doherty, 2010). Therefore, if organizations wish to reap these benefits, determining what type of leader enhances OC should be practically useful (Wells & Welty Peachey, 2011). Further, a well-rounded understanding of leadership in sport can be gained through exploring how various

leadership theories relate and differ when compared simultaneously to OC outcomes. This logic is consistent with how transactional, transformational, and servant leadership theories have been integrated into sport management.

Sport management researchers have followed this line of reasoning with much of the leadership research to form much of the sport leadership knowledge base (Bourner & Weese, 1995; Charbonneau, Barling, & Kelloway, 2001; Doherty & Danylchuk, 1996; Kent & Chelladurai, 2001; Wallace & Weese, 1995; Weese, 1995; 1996; Wells & Welty Peachey, 2011). The relationship between sport management and general management has been evident and involved management looking to sport for knowledge as well. For example, Kellett (1999) highlighted several management studies that supported the premise that business leaders emulate sport coaches in their leadership practices (see also Burnes & O'Donnell, 2011; Espitia-Escuer & Garcia-Cebrian 2006). This line of research indicated much can be learned by researchers in both disciplines through integrating theories and tenets from one another. Furthermore, Smith and Westerbeek (2005) found business leaders sought the expertise of sport coaches and executives when it came to strategy development, building team morale, innovation, and mentoring. Even the style of leadership has evolved to mirror that of the sport coach (Gordon, 2007). Jones (2002) noted that coaches who were former athletes tended to assume an authoritarian approach to leading, while modern coaches use democratic and empowering approaches. Overall, the main aspect that business has borrowed from sport involves the sport psychology aspect, specifically the systems and application of sport (Bull, 2006; Burnes & O'Donnell, 2011; Murphy, 1996; Jones & Moorhouse, 2007).

There has been further evidence of distinctions in sport from leadership, managerial, and organizational behavior standpoints. Swanson and Kent (2016) investigated the emotional tie of employees to sport. Support for passion toward sport among employees supported the idea that religious-like passion toward sport furthered employees' job satisfaction and performance (Taylor, Doherty, & McGraw, 2008; Todd & Harris, 2009; Swanson & Kent, 2016). Earlier work by Swanson and Kent (2014) identified two specific distinctions of sport leaders: (a) sport domain knowledge, and (b) sport-specific experience and skill. These distinctions were critical when followers evaluated their sport leaders in terms of credibility and profile.

The sport psychology research linking coaches as sport leaders to business leaders compares and contrasts the two contexts and the aspects of leadership in each. Many aspects of the sport industry have been identified as unique, such as game-day issues, various internal operational aspects, and fandom (Burnes, & O'Donnell, 2011; Chelladurai, 1990; Gordon, 2007; Loehr & Schwartz, 2001; Jones, 2002; Weinberg & McDermott, 2002). As such, the work by Weinberg and McDermott (2002) pertains the most to the current study. Weinberg and McDermott interviewed ten sport leaders (i.e., athletic directors and coaches) and ten business leaders (i.e., general managers, vice-presidents, and chief executive officers) to determine the unique characteristics of sport leadership. While their findings demonstrated contextual overlap, the key distinction was that sport leaders require stronger interactions with followers. On the other hand, business leaders emphasized reflection while listening to followers and being honest (Gordon, 2007; Weinberg & McDermott, 2002). These findings illustrate a leadership difference between

the two contexts; offering sport specific findings based on those who have achieved respective levels of leadership.

The sport-specific findings are evidence of a link to authentic leadership; specifically, as the need for strong follower interactions and communication relates to authentic leadership's emphasis on a genuine leader and follower relations (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). The above findings support the idea that authentic leadership may contribute to the unique aspect of sport leadership through further explanation of the sport leader characteristics (Weinberg & McDermott, 2002). The findings from Swanson and Kent (2014) also lend credence to authentic leadership in sport. The aspects of sport leaders rated most important were sport-domain knowledge and sport-specific experience, two aspects that must be authentic and cannot be faked by a leader. Authentic leadership research has also emphasized authentic followership and the leader-follower relationship (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). By applying authentic leadership in sport, we may be able to enhance our understanding of the stronger interactions, positive engagement, and genuine communication that sport leader's desire. Practically, this work can also enhance the ability of sport leaders to communicate their domain knowledge, experience, and expertise, which are integral in sport organizations (Swanson & Kent, 2014).

Contribution Statement

Sport management researchers stand to benefit from exploring the nature of authentic leadership within the discipline. The previously mentioned management literature and researcher's understanding of organizational culture has been fortified by including authentic leadership into the related discourse. For example, organizational citizenship behavior (Shapira-Lischinsky & Tsemach, 2014), group performance (Peus,

Wesche, Strieicher, Braun, & Frey, 2012), and employee burnout and turnover intent (Laschinger & Fida, 2014; Laschinger, Wong, & Grau, 2013) have all been studied in management and sport management with similarly reported results (Adcroft & Teckman, 2008a; 2008b; Aoyagi, Cox, & McGuir, 2008; Cunningham, 2006). However, the researchers in the management discipline have the added benefit of examining these outcomes through a more thorough leadership lens with authentic leadership included in their discourse. Sport management scholars can reap similar benefits through exploring how authentic leadership can provide an added lens through which to view leadership influence. This work can help explain OC and its system of norms and behaviors in sport organizations, which ultimately give rise to the need for strong, culture-based leaders (Schein, 1985).

Another reason to integrate authentic leadership in sport stems from the theory being seen as an underlying tenet of leadership, which is an aspect that other leadership theories do not universally share (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005; Ladkin & Taylor, 2010). As a root construct of leadership, authentic leadership represents an important input for an organization, which encompasses a long-term competitive advantage through creation of a lasting OC (George, 2003). Thus OC, and specifically organizational authenticity, is demonstrated through various leadership approaches (Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011; Novicevic, Harvey, Buckley, & Brown-Radford, 2006). These authors noted that displayed leadership, whether transformational, charismatic, spiritual, or servant, contains elements of authentic leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, et al. 2011; Ladkin & Taylor, 2010). Additionally, van Dierendonck (2011) maintained that servant leadership contains similar

forms of leader characteristics, while others noted the strong correlation to authentic leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Banks, McCauley, Gardner, & Guler, 2016).

While other forms of leadership relate to or possess authenticity, "… no one can be authentic by trying to imitate someone else" (George, Sims, McLean, & Mayer, 2007, p. 1). This statement demonstrates that a leader cannot simply try to be authentic, but rather they must truly be authentic in their dealings (Gardner et al., 2011; Kernis & Goldman, 2006; Kiersch & Byrne, 2015; Ladkin & Taylor, 2010). Moreover, several authors have noted development of authentic followers through social exchange theory (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Blau, 1964; Illies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005), and social learning theory (Bandura, 1977; Lyubovnikova, et al. 2017), which makes conceptual sense since ideally the best way for followers to learn authenticity is to observe positive and authentic behavior. These ideas reinforce the root tenet aspect of authentic leadership by illustrating the reciprocal relationship between leader and follower (George, et al. 2007). The follower development portion also shows how authentic leadership could potentially enable a firm's lasting OC (George, 2003). The lasting OC outcome could be especially true in contexts where a direct byproduct of an authentic environment could manifest in a felt sense of community (SOC) among organizational followers. SOC represents a growing research area in sport, and one aspect of OC.

SOC allows individuals to express their true or authentic selves (Albanesi, Cicognani, & Zani, 2007; McMillan, 1996), and while SOC has been a demonstrated catalyst for individuals to become authentic, research has yet to examine what specific leadership theory is most likely to explain SOC. Given the relationship between authentic leaders and their followers, authentic leadership represents a potential fit to explain this

aspect of organizational culture in sport. The potential fit between the two constructs provides the backdrop for the current study.

In sport, SOC research has grown in recent years to where it has become a distinctive aspect of the sport context with its own sport specific scale (Warner & Dixon, 2016; Warner, Kerwin, & Walker, 2013). SOC is often defined as encapsulating the elements that surround and connect and individual to their surrounding community (context specific) and what elements embody a sense of belonging for each individual (Luzio, Guillet-Descas, Procentese, & Martinent, 2017; Sarason, 1974; Talo, Mannarini, & Rochira, 2014). Warner, Kerwin, and Walker (2013) expanded sport SOC off of the foundational SOC definition to include seven factors unique to the sport context (administrative consideration, common interest, competition, equity of administrative decisions, leadership opportunities, social spaces, and voluntary actions). Outcomes of sport SOC have included greater perceived value from sport fitness participation (Pickett, Goldsmith, Damon, & Walker, 2016), enhanced feelings of SOC from volunteering in sport (Kerwin, Warner, Walker, & Stevens, 2015), and parents being more likely to re-enroll their children in sport if they experience SOC (Chalip, Lin, Green, & Dixon, 2013). Therefore, with growing importance in the sport discourse, determining how authentic leadership theory is related to SOC in sport represents a germane initial endeavor. This endeavor is one that falls in line with the prescribed literature related to research on authentic leadership and OC (Azanza et al., 2013; Hernandez, Ebery, Avolio, & Johnson, 2011). Support for this line of research can also be found in the OC research in sport. For example, MacIntosh and Doherty (2010) noted that specific management "… strategies aimed at changing and/or strengthening aspects of cultural dimensions and tracking the

influence of such changes over the course of time is of interest" (p. 116). While a longitudinal study is beyond the scope of the current dissertation, the current study can help further the understanding of how authentic leadership influence one form of OC in sport.

Problem Statement

The current problem this dissertation aims to address focuses on the following two gaps in the sport management literature. First, much of the recent leadership research in sport management has focused on the ethical behaviors of leaders in intercollegiate athletic departments (Burton & Welty Peachey, 2013; Sagas & Wigley, 2014; Welty Peachey & Burton, 2017; Welty Peachey, Burton, & Wells, 2014). While the context of intercollegiate sport is interesting and the element of ethics is notable, these works are in a highly focused context and on one outcome. This research further demonstrates a general complacency in leadership research to focus primarily on one context and one issue. While there has been some work beyond the intercollegiate context (Chelladurai & Kerwin, 2017; Hoye, 2004; 2006; Kent & Chelladurai, 2003; Todd & Kent, 2004), most has been concentrated in one area. Moreover, repeated inclusion of transformational and transactional leadership has limited literature advancement. With the discipline's scholars engrained in this research pattern, sport management's understanding of leadership remains limited and fails to explain how leadership influences the varied tenets of OC.

Second and lastly, as the importance and focus on sport SOC increases (Warner & Dixon, 2016), our understanding of how it is created through a leadership lens is important. Dickson, Hallmann, and Phelps (2017) explored the antecedents to SOC among sport volunteers, revealing that individualized consideration positively influenced SOC.

However, individualized consideration is only one dimension of transformational leadership, and the other antecedents included in the study were not leadership-related. Nevertheless, addressing this gap is important in order to further expand on the discipline's understanding of SOC. Further, according to Warner and Dixon (2016), much of the sport SOC literature pertains to volunteers, fitness participants, and parents (see also Chalip et al., 2013; Kerwin et al., 2015; McCole, Jacobs, Lindley, & McAvoy, 2012; Pickett et al., 2016). With well over 400,000 full-time (i.e., non-seasonal) employees in the sport and entertainment industry in the U.S. (Bureau of Labor and Statistics, 2017), there is a robust population of sport managers that could benefit from a more rounded understanding of how SOC is fostered. By knowing how authentic leadership encourages and maintains sport SOC, sport managers could gain valuable knowledge for reducing turnover and promoting satisfaction. Doing so will allow researchers to build off of the potential integration of authentic leadership into the discourse, while aiding to further previous OC research (MacIntosh & Doherty, 2010) through sport SOC (Warner & Dixon, 2016).

Purpose of Study

This dissertation will expand the focus of sport management leadership research to include authentic leadership. The work will be a step forward for researchers in the discipline wishing to utilize authentic leadership in future studies and contribute a relatively understudied leadership theory to the literature. The results of this dissertation should assist sport management scholars with better understanding for how authentic leadership theory can influence one aspect of OC in sport. Therefore, a research approach with authentic leadership and sport SOC with appropriate research questions offers a first step for a more robust understanding of the influence of authentic leadership in sport.

While SOC has been shown to influence positive outcomes (Hill, 1996; Pickett et al., 2016; Talo, Mannarini, & Rochira, 2014; Speer, Peterson, Armstead, & Allen, 2013), there has been little research on the leadership side of the 'community' discussion. While Omolayo (2007) found that SOC was influenced by certain leadership styles, his study compared democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire leadership styles, which have been replaced with the more current theories. As such, this dissertation will incorporate authentic leadership and test to determine how this theory can influence sport SOC. A shortcoming of previous SOC research in sport has been its focus on sport participants or volunteers (Kerwin et al., 2015; Pickett, et al., 2016; Warner, Dixon, & Chalip, 2012). Therefore, the current study will include employees of sport organizations. This endeavor is important given a leader's direct influence in a sport organization setting is on her/his employees. The results will help guide future research on leadership in sport and increase the discipline's understanding of SOC. Therefore, the following research questions will guide this study:

RQ1: *Is authentic leadership associated with sport SOC?*

RQ2: *How will the dimensions of authentic leadership influence the dimensions of sport SOC?*

In answering these research questions, the nuanced influence of each authentic leadership dimension will be revealed. The results will hold importance to both practitioners and researchers. Researchers will be able to incorporate leadership into future SOC research and integrate other SOC antecedents alongside the authentic leadership theory to more fully understand how SOC manifests in sport. Practitioners who desire sport SOC will be able to seek out authentic leaders to hire and develop.

The remaining chapters in this dissertation are setup as follows. Chapter II will review the literature pertinent to authentic leadership, and SOC. In this chapter, the foundational research for each theory will be detailed then, each will be discussed with an emphasis on the research done in sport management on each theory. While this latter aspect is absent for authentic leadership, the argument for its inclusion will be reiterated. Next, in Chapter III the methods for data collection, scales to be used, and data analysis will be given. Following this, Chapter IV will present the results of the study. Last, the discussion of the results, future research directions, and limitations are to be presented in Chapter V.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The growth of sport management has spanned both sport-specific theory development and theories borrowed from related disciplines (Chalip, 2006). With this in mind, the current study will use both approaches. The first approach involves integrating authentic leadership into the sport management discourse to help to determine how this leadership theory can aid researchers to explain sport phenomena through a leadership lens. The second approach includes the sense of community (SOC) in sport theory, which has evolved the past few years to represent a salient, sport rooted theory that has helped researchers explain different impacts sport has on various groups of people (Warner & Dixon, 2016). It is the intersection of these two theories that the current study will examine and help further each theory's research within sport management.

SOC is defined as one's feeling of belonging to, reliability on, and long-lasting connectedness to their 'community' (McMillan & Chavis, 1986). SOC is a salient research stream and a desirable aspect of organizational culture (OC), yet few studies have examined the leadership style best suited to foster this outcome. Against this leadership backdrop, there is also an absence of authentic leadership research in sport management. Extending the argument from Chapter I of this dissertation, this gap and concept intersectionality provides an avenue for inquiry. Therefore, this literature review will provide the definitions, history, foundational research, and fit within sport for authentic leadership, and SOC. Specifically, each theory will be reviewed and the foundational research from parent disciplines and sport will be provided. In line with the exploratory

nature of this study, the sport SOC literature will circle back to illustrate the potential theoretical fit with authentic leadership.

Leadership

Leadership has remained an integral part of the academic discourse in the management discipline as evidenced by the number of studies on the topic (see, for example, Banks, McCauley, Gardner, & Guler, 2016; Dinh et al., 2014; Hernandez, Eberly, Avolio, & Johnson, 2011; Yammarino, 2013; Yukl, 1989). Central to the majority of leadership research are four theories: authentic leadership (Henderson & Hoy, 1983; Luthans & Avolio, 2003), transformational leadership, transactional leadership (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978), and servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977). All of these theories have contributed significantly to the aggregate knowledge base in the general business/management literature as well as sport management (Chellardurai & Kerwin, 2017; Welty Peachey, Damon, Zhou, & Burton, 2015). Recent sport management literature has illustrated a majority of the discipline's leadership foundation has been formed from transactional, transformational, and servant leadership (Chelladurai & Kerwin, 2017; Welty Peachey et al., 2015). However, authentic leadership has remained mostly absent from the sport management discourse.

In their review of leadership trends Dinh et al. (2014) noted a tendency in the literature has been to highlight different contexts (Ryan, Haslam, Hersby, & Bongiorno, 2011; Sy et al., 2010), and societal systems (Zaheer & Soda, 2009). Dinh and colleagues (2014) argued that expanding leadership research to include various contexts and each context's unique social systems allows the dynamic human element to be considered with leadership style. Such a research approach and integration of understudied contexts may

support varied outcomes within each different context. This idea supports continued research on all leadership theories across varying contexts—in particular, sport management. Accordingly, the following section will review authentic leadership literature in both general management and sport. After the authentic leadership section, SOC will then be reviewed before the theoretical fit between the two theories is discussed.

Authentic Leadership

Authentic leadership has experienced a robust amount of research since the early 2000's. This research stemmed from Luthans and Avolio's (2003) work that conceptualized their view of authentic leadership based on the work of Henderson and Hoy (1983) and Hoy and Henderson (1983), which was rooted in transformational and transactional leadership by Burns (1978). The work of Erickson (1995) and Harter (2002) also contributed to building authenticity as a construct and was integral for the work of Luthans and Avolio (2003). This first iteration described authentic leadership to be "the process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of the leaders and associates" (Luthans & Avolio, 2003, p. 243). During this time, these early iterations led to more scholars examining authentic leadership, including multiple studies in 2005, which refined the theory significantly (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Included during this time was conceptual work on authentic leadership and qualitative research to inform the theory's tenants (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Model conceptualization research by Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, and Walumbwa (2005) and Ilies, Morgeson, and Nahrgang (2005), sought to refine the elements of authenticity with an understanding the leader's 'self' and processes for

follower development. These models favored parsimony and formed the elements of authentic leadership that led toward more consistent and accepted terminology. As well, these works simultaneously addressed some of the inconsistencies related to authentic leadership's understanding and terminology raised by Copper, Scandura, and Schriesheim (2005).

Various research approaches were used by researchers during this time. Shamir and Eilam (2005), for example, used a life stories approach to describe antecedents to authentic leadership development. Sparrowe (2005) integrated a narrative approach to characterize how leaders view their authentic self. Both approaches "… describe what constitutes authentic leadership, and to provide a deeper understanding of what motivates its development" (Avolio & Gardner, 2005, p. 318). Michie and Gooty (2005) examined how positive outward-directed emotions (i.e., goodwill, appreciation, and concern for those around them) motivated authentic leaders to engage in self-transcendent values. This work acknowledged how realizing one's predisposed emotions can aid in their leadership behaviors. From this emotion-based work, Eagly (2005) proffered boundaries that some authentic leaders may encounter in their attempt to illicit genuine follower relationships. These boundaries include an inability by the leader to convey their shared values, the leader not possessing the same values as followers, and those who have traditionally not accessed leadership roles will find these boundaries to be even greater (Eagly, 2005). Overall, these studies on authentic leadership advanced earlier theory recognition and the call for further theory development (George, 2003; Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Seligman, 2002).

With a growing foundation, the study and refinement of authentic leadership progressed. According to Banks, McCauley, Gardner, and Guler (2016) the most meaningful definition of authentic leadership came from Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, and Peterson (2008), who described authentic leaders as those who are self-aware, transparent, and demonstrate consistent values, beliefs, and morals. Within their definition, the authors maintained that authentic leadership centered on four components: self-awareness, relational transparency, balanced processing, and internal moral perspective. These four components helped aggregate previous work to specify authentic leadership's definitional tenets, which are presented in Table 2.1 (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005; Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011; George, 2003; Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005; Kernis, 2003; Lyubovnikova, Legood, Turner, & Mamakouka, 2017; Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Table 2.1. Authentic Leadership Tenets

Authentic leadership tenets	Definition
Self-awareness	Formed from one's values, knowledge, strengths and weaknesses, and their understanding of these components that comes from self-reflection.
Internal Moral Perspective	One's desire to make a positive difference, and asserts this desire comes from in-depth values that guide and self-regulate an authentic leader.
Relational Transparency	Being open about one's true self, emotions, thoughts, and establishing this open relationship with those around them (followers).
Balanced Processing	A decision-making process that acknowledges one's weaknesses and seeks out the opinions and knowledge of others in order to make as objective a decision as possible.

These four components culminated in the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) being developed and validated by Walumbwa et al. (2008). This measure of authentic leadership has been the most widely used quantitative tool to study authentic leadership (Banks et al., 2016; Gardner et al., 2011), but not without contention. For example, part of the reason that ALQ has been so widely used is due to the time of its creation, when no other measures existed. It was not until 2011 when Neider and Schriesheim challenged the ALQ with their Authentic Leadership Inventory (ALI). Neider and Schriesheim (2011) noted previous issues with the ALQ such as high correlation to transformational leadership, yet when it was constructed the ALI still borrowed items from the ALQ. It seems this attempt to construct a different instrument led to the same issues faced by the ALQ in that the ALI possessed high correlations to transformational leadership (Banks et al., 2016). Therefore, the ALQ still stands as the prescribed instrument with which to measure authentic leadership; however, the caveat of theoretical redundancy with transformational leadership should be noted.

This caveat has been discussed at length in the authentic leadership literature with much of the argument supporting authentic leadership's uniqueness drawing on the theory's standing as a root construct of leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner et al., 2011, Walumbwa et al., 2008). Recent research has argued this point as authentic leadership possesses an underlying 'true-self' embedded in any authentic leader (Ladkin & Taylor, 2010). The concept of authentic leadership's root construct was supported by Avolio and Gardner (2005, p. 329) who noted that "… authentic leadership can incorporate transformational, charismatic, servant, spiritual or other forms of leadership. However, in contrast to transformational leadership in particular, authentic leadership may or may not

be charismatic". Avolio and Gardner (2005) further viewed this theory as more of a transformational leader as a leader who is also authentic. Conversely, authentic leadership theory or an authentic leader does not mean they are also transformational (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner et al., 2011; Spitzmuller & Ilies, 2010). Therefore, the transformational-authentic relationship can be viewed as all transformational leaders are also authentic, but not all authentic leaders are transformational. Spitzmuller and Ilies (2010) validated this account when they found strong relational transparency exhibited by an authentic leader led to increased perceptions of transformational leadership in that same leader.

Banks et al. (2016) found that despite a high correlation between authentic and transformational leadership across 100 independent samples (r =.72), each leadership theory was responsible for explaining different types of organizational outcomes. Authentic leadership was found to best explain outcomes related to group or organizational performance, as well as conscientious outcomes such as organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). This finding is important to note as it gives credence to authentic leadership as a theory that can be used to help explain specific outcomes. Conversely, transformational leadership demonstrated greater influence when the outcomes related to follower satisfaction, satisfaction with one's leader, and task performance. These results enabled future authentic leadership research to determine how authentic leadership might influence various outcomes compared to transformational leadership. The results from Banks et al. (2016) are important to note as they empirically tested transformational and authentic leadership theories to determine what unique value each theory possesses. This

work helps give researchers interested in authentic leadership specific relationships to explore while confirming the theory holds its own unique contributions.

Authentic leadership has also helped researchers expand their understanding of various organizational culture (OC) outcomes that they previously were limited in understanding (Gardner et al., 2011). For example, when a leader exhibited authentic behaviors, followers were more likely to engage in increased OCB, which resulted in increased performance (Brown & Trevino, 2006; Jensen & Luthans, 2006; Ryan & Deci, 2001). Leroy, Anseel, Gardner and Sels (2012), and Leroy, Palanski, and Simons (2012) established the positive influence that authentic leadership had on follower commitment and performance. Specifically, follower need satisfaction proved influential in the authentic leadership/follower dynamic (Leroy, Anseel, Gardner, & Sels, 2012). This idea was interestingly applied to the how authentic leadership functioned in an entrepreneurial setting. The comparison between an entrepreneur as an authentic leader was made with the shared characteristics between both and resulted in greater employee attitudes (Jensen & Luthans, 2006). While these results revealed characteristics related to authentic leadership, Sendjaya, Pekerti, Hartel, Hirst, and Burtarbutar (2016) found a cautionary characteristic in perceived Machiavellianism. More specifically, the authors discovered Machiavellianism to reverse the relationships between authentic leadership and moral reasoning, as well as authentic leadership and moral actions. These results underscored the potential negative effect of Machiavellianism, within an authentic leadership situation. As these studies helped establish direct relationships to authentic leadership, additional research tested various mediating variables to enhance the knowledge of organizational behaviors through authentic leadership.

Shapira-Lischinsky and Tsemach (2014) found that psychological capital mediated a teacher's perception of authentic leadership and OCB, whereby employee well-being and creativity increased as a result of perceived authenticity (see also Rahimnia & Sharifirad, 2015; Rego, Sousa, Marques, & Cunha, 2012). Regarding psychological capital, Wang, Sui, Luthans, Wang, and Wu (2014) examined this relationship by incorporating Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory as a mediator. The authors found LMX positively mediated the relationship between authentic leadership and follower performance. An interesting result from Wang et al. (2014) was that follower performance increased when influenced by authentic leadership and moderated by low levels of psychological capital. This suggests that authentic leadership's influence can overcome low follower psychological capital and still result in high levels of performance (Wang, Sui, Luthans, Wang, & Wu, 2014). Additionally, empowerment mediated the relationship between authentic leadership, employee trust in their leader, and job satisfaction (Wang & Hsieh, 2013; Wong & Laschinger, 2012). Research in the nursing context found authentic leadership improved empowerment, new nurse experiences, reduced burnout and turnover (Giallonardo, Wong, & Iwasiw 2010; Laschinger & Fida 2014; Laschinger &Smith 2013; Laschinger, Wong, & Grau 2013). Further, Lyubovnikova et al. (2017) found that team reflexivity (i.e., self-regulatory behaviors) mediated the relationship between authentic leadership and team performance. As seen through these works, the recent trend to emerge in authentic leadership research has been integrating mediator and moderator variables. This aids researchers to form greater knowledge about how authentic leadership adds to our understanding of organizational outcomes or positive organizational behaviors (POB). Research in this area has been devoted to the ideas of improved work engagement and

leader trust (Hassan & Ahmed 2011; Seco & Lopes 2013). Similarly, organizational performance was influenced by authentic leadership (Hmieleski, Cole, & Baron, 2012), whereby follower performance increased as a result of authentic leadership (Leroy, Palanski, & Simons, 2012).

The work of Yammarino, Dionne, Schriesheim, and Dansereau (2008) supported authentic leadership's influence on primary OCB/POB outcomes, which helped enhance various secondary outcomes across multiple levels (individual followers, groups of followers, and the organization as a whole). Before this work, researchers held a narrow view of how authentic leader behaviors and characteristics influenced only individual or group outcomes; not both levels simultaneously, and on follower perceptions of a leader. A main contribution from this multilevel (i.e., individual, dyadic, group, and organizational) study was a further validation of various POB mediating the authentic leadership-multilevel performance relationship (Yammarino et al., 2008). Kiersch and Byrne (2015) also examined authentic leadership through a multilevel perspective while including organizational justice across group and individual levels. Their results supported authentic leadership's influence on individual and group level outcomes, but also showed that organizational justice mediated the relationship between authentic leadership and stress, turnover intention, and organizational commitment (Keirsch & Byrnes, 2015).

The work on authentic leadership has investigated and (for the most part) supported that authentic leaders are role model leaders whom followers take after while increasing their own performance and that of their organization (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004). Overall, past researchers have surmised that authentic leaders are more effective in achieving performance-based outcomes for groups and organizations

while also having enhanced the understanding of individual OCB outcomes (Banks et al., 2016; Ilies, Curseu, Dimotakis, & Spitzmuller, 2013; Wang et al., 2014) than transformational leaders.

Authentic Leadership in Sport

While authentic leadership in sport research has been limited so far, one study has started the discussion of the leadership theory in sport. The work of Kim, Kim, and Reid (2017) represents the first foray into authentic leadership in sport research. The authors took an important first step to exploring authentic leadership; however, the authors studied authentic leadership in a highly focused context within sport: a head coach in intercollegiate athletics. This first work illustrates other scholars in sport management have begun to recognize the utility that authentic leadership possesses to further enhance the discipline's leadership understanding, a notion that has been supported by other authors as well (Chelladurai & Kerwin, 2017). In this spirit, the current study will take another step toward integrating authentic leadership in sport by examining its influence on sport SOC. The following section details SOC and sport SOC literature before presenting how authentic leadership and sport SOC theoretically fit.

Sense of Community

Research on what connects individuals with those around them in a community and what embeds a feeling of belongingness among individuals has been an endeavor spanning decades (Luzio, Guillet-Descas, Procentese, & Martinent, 2017; Talo, Mannarini, & Rochira, 2014). The most common work referenced at the beginning of this research line is Sarason (1974), where the first iteration of SOC was observed, based on the communities where people lived and interacted with their neighbors (Burroughs & Eby, 1998).

Sarason's work conceptualized SOC as "… the individual's feeling of belonging and active participation in community life, and the perception of similarity and interdependence" (Luzio et al., 2017, p. 1). McMillan and Chavis (1986) later expanded the definition of SOC to the more abstract notion of community, whereby feelings of belonging, reliability on others within a group, and enduring feelings that member needs will be fulfilled based on the group can be applied. The definition led McMillan and Chavis (1986) to identify four main factors of SOC: (a) membership, (b) influence, (c) integration and fulfillment of needs, and (d) shared emotional connection. These factors been formed the foundation for much of the modern SOC research (Talo et al., 2014).

The first factor, *membership*, is related to one's feeling of belonging to the community, shared boundaries being embraced, and an overall feeling of safety. Boundaries help to distinguish members from nonmembers while providing the security needed for individuals to feel as though they can express their unique selves (McMillan & Chavis, 1986; McMillan, 1996). According to Talo Mannarini, and Rochira (2014) *influence* refers to

Individual perception of mutual influence, not only providing opportunities for individuals to participate in community life, make their own contributions, and perceive their impacts on the collective decisions and actions of the community but also heightening individual awareness that the community affects personal choices and decisions itself. (p. 2)

This allows individuals to feel conformity to the community, and a dyadic relationship of influence from individual to community and vice versa. The third factor, *integration and fulfillment of needs*, is reinforcement individuals derive from the

community, which sees their own needs being met while also seeing and helping other member needs met (Burroughs & Eby, 1998; Luzio et al., 2017; McMillan & Chavis, 1986). The final factor, *shared emotional connection,* is based on members either having participated in or being able to relate to a shared history (McMillan & Chavis, 1986). Talo, Mannarini, and Rochira (2014) added how a shared history can stem from significant events and ultimately strengthen social ties within the community. Talo et al. (2014), in their meta-analysis, noted that the four-factor model from McMillan and Chavis (1986) was the most commonly used and referenced model. With the most common and appropriate model of SOC established, the following sections detail contexts and outcomes that contributed to the growth of SOC research.

As complex as understanding human nature and human interactions may be, SOC has encapsulated the mutual emotional and communal quality of human communities (Cantillon, Davidson, & Schweitzer, 2003). While SOC has helped researchers understand and coordinate the distinctness in communities, communities themselves are as distinctive as the people belonging to them (Cantillon et al., 2003). This understanding is highlighted by the contexts where SOC research has been conducted and the associated outcomes measured. For example, youth and adolescents from various countries were found to have greater social participation, social well-being, and conventional political participation based on their identified community structures (Albanesi, Cicognani, & Zani, 2007; Cicognani et al., 2008; Cicognani, Zani, Fournier, Gavray, & Born, 2011). Furthermore, to reflect the growing influence of technology in society, SOC research has also focused on online communities (Blanchard, 2008). For example, higher levels of SOC were found in seniors who frequently used the Internet (Sum, Mathews, Pourghasem, & Hughes, 2009),

and those who both read and post online messages in a virtual community were found to experience a positive sense of their virtual community (Tonteri, Kosonen, Ellonen, & Tarkiainen, 2011).

SOC and Special Populations

SOC research has also been directed toward special populations, such as those with mental illness (Townley & Kloss, 2009) and the physically disabled (Ville, Crost, Ravaud, & Group, 2003). The work of Ville and colleagues (2003) contradicted most of the preceding SOC research by noting some negative associations. In particular, they found that well-being was independent of SOC, and women who fell outside SOC experienced reduced levels of well-being compared to their counterparts. Conversely, Obst and Stafurik (2010) found support for online SOC benefits (i.e., increased well-being, personal growth, increased interaction) for those who are physically disabled, comparable to the findings from Sum, Mathews, Pourghasem, and Hughes (2009) for seniors. The difference in the results illustrates the point raised by Cantillon, Davidson, and Schweitzer (2003) that "… communities can be extremely safe, and yet at the same time, also extremely alienating with little to no feelings of community togetherness" (p. 328) and are as unique as the people who construct the communities. Similar to the work done on adolescent groups (Albanesi et al., 2007; Cicognani et al., 2008; Cicognani et al., 2011), Vieno, Perkins, Smith, and Santinello (2005) and Vieno, Santinello, Pastore, and Perkins (2007) examined SOC in schools through a multilevel approach. These studies supported positive outcomes from SOC such one's outlook toward school, and a positive outlook toward their classmates. These studies also demonstrated SOC's potential to mediate and discovered a multilevel democratic school climate to be a predictor of SOC.

SOC and Community Organizations

Another segment of SOC research relates SOC to community organizations (Jason & Kobayashi, 1995), since these groups are largely geared toward bringing individuals together to express concerns about their surrounding community (Hughey, Speer, & Peterson, 1999). Community organizations epitomized the debate surrounding SOC's processes to be either at an individual or a group (i.e., community) level (Hill, 1996). However, though their longitudinal work, Long and Perkins (2007) found SOC to share both individual and group characteristics, and determined that SOC significantly influences social capital, place (i.e., the surrounding material environment), community improvement (i.e., communitarianism), community satisfaction, and community confidence. Another desired SOC outcome in community organizations included intrapersonal empowerment, which leads to a dyadic result where the empowered individuals increase their organizational efforts, which in turn leads to increased organizational effectiveness and goal attainment (Hughey, Peterson, Lowe, & Oprescu, 2008). This multilevel outcome supports the work of Perkins and Long (2002) who found SOC predictive of group- and individual-level input. Overall, SOC in community organizations has been shown to be a positive influence across multiple levels of analysis.

While a positive influence, SOC has been employed with different referents, which is apparent from the work reviewed above. This supports the ideas of Hill (1996) and Hughey, Speer, and Peterson (1999) that SOC is setting-specific. Cantillon et al. (2003) also pointed out that communities are as unique as the individuals in them. Scholarship devoted to this point has spanned settings such as the neighborhood (Buckner, 1988; Chavis, Hogge, McMillan, & Wandersman, 1986), cities (Davidson & Cotter, 1986),

territorial communities (Prezza, Amici, Roberti, & Tedeschi, 2001; Prezza & Constantini, 1998), religious gatherings (Pargament, Silverman, Johnson, Echemendia, & Snyder. 1983), and college campuses (Lounsbury & DeNeui, 1995). Despite the setting-specific notion, SOC has been found to positively affect both the individual and the group (Long & Perkins, 2007; Talo et al., 2014). Further evidence for the positive effect from SOC has seen increased well-being, social cohesion, psychological empowerment, life satisfaction, and cognitive learning in an online environment (Farrell, Aubry, & Coulombe, 2004; Ohmer, 2007; Prezza & Constantini, 1998; Rovai, 2002; Speer, Peterson, Armstead, & Allen, 2012; Wilkinson, 2007). Recent research on a professional association's membership found a significant relationship of SOC to members' association meeting satisfaction and future attendance intentions (Hahm, Breiter, Severt, Wang, & Fjelstul, 2016). As well, Omoto and Packard (2016) determined psychological SOC to predict future volunteerism, and environmental volunteerism and activism. The latter along with the former outcomes illustrate the breadth of SOC's influence across multiple community settings. The importance of SOC has been further supported by research examining the absence of SOC. One such study found a lack of SOC to lead to alienation, feelings of loneliness, and psychological distress (Townley & Kloos, 2009). Negative outcomes from a lack of SOC punctuate the underlying importance it possesses for individuals and groups. While most of the SOC research has pertained to individuals and groups in the previously mentioned contexts, SOC was developed to have a broad appeal to include contexts such as work communities or the work place as an organizational community (Hahm et al., 2016).

SOC in the Workplace

Burroughs and Eby (1998) identified the workplace as a context for SOC based on the idea that "… a workplace community is identifiable both as a geographic locality and as a formal and informal network of individuals who share a common association" (p. 510). The growing attention the workplace has received as a community (Lambert & Hopkins, 1995; Klein & D'Aunno, 1986; Pretty & McCarthy, 1991) aligns with Sarason's (1974) conceptualization of SOC and supported by Heller (1989), who illustrated the growing trend of individuals no longer living their lives in their neighborhoods, but rather living and feeling connected more to the organizations where they work. Klein and D'Aunno (1986) determined five main referents for SOC in the workplace: (a) task, (b) friendship, (c) professional association, (d) networks, and (e) physical location; and six factors thought to contribute to workplace SOC: (a) employee characteristics, (b) leader characteristics, (c) job characteristics, (d) organizational characteristics, (e) work group characteristics, and (f) extra-organizational characteristics. The concentration of SOC in the workplace continued to build on these referents by examining certain workplace outcomes such as improved information communication (Dede, 1996), well-being (Walker, Wassermann, & Wellman, 1994), greater involvement in work related activities (Royal & Rossi, 1996), self-esteem, trust, and productivity (Gibbs, 1995; Preece, 2000).

Omolayo (2007) expanded on workplace SOC to examine leadership's role in SOC, which was one of the few studies to link these areas. While an important study to help ground this dissertation, Omolayo used democratic and autocratic leadership styles as opposed to the more commonly prescribed theories of transactional, transformational, servant, and authentic. Despite this limitation, Omolayo (2007) illustrated two important

findings. First, there is no association between SOC and leadership style. Second, there was no difference between the male and female levels of SOC. As mentioned, the leadership styles used are not as common in the current leadership literature. Furthermore, the sample size was relatively low for all of the measured variables. Finally, the measure used to obtain SOC was the Psychological Sense of Community Questionnaire (PSCQ) by Adesanya (2001), which was adapted from a Master's thesis. Furthermore, retesting of the PSCQ has only been performed in select Nigerian workplaces, causing concern over its generalizability. In addition, the PSCQ was notably absent from the meta-analysis done by Talo et al. (2014), further illustrating its limited function in the literature. Despite these limitations, Omolayo's (2007) work does represent an important piece in the SOC and leadership intersection as one of the few to join the two research areas and move workplace SOC from its earlier iterations to being empirically examined.

More recent workplace SOC research has been performed. For example, Dixon et al. (2015) found SOC to be positively related to both behavioral intentions and self-reported behavior as it pertained to energy saving behaviors at a large university in the United States. Boyd and Nowell (2017) found SOC enabled employee well-being perceptions predicted organizational citizenship behavior. While these works operationalize SOC in a typical workplace, a growing workplace context involves individuals who work remotely. For example, Garrett, Spreitzer, and Bacevice (2017) found those who work remotely still maintained SOC in co-working spaces through endorsing, encountering, and engaging. These actions allowed members to experience SOC as independent workers. With a wide array of contexts studied and various outcomes

determined from SOC, a significant area of research has been formed. However, this research is accompanied by debate on the future directions of SOC research.

SOC Measurement

A large debate surrounding SOC has revolved around how it is measured (Talo et al., 2014). While McMillan and Chavis' (1986) SOC model has been the primary used (Mannarini & Fedi, 2009), there have been multiple attempts to measure and assess their dimensions of SOC (Cantillon et al., 2003; Hahm et al., 2016). Based on the results of the meta-analysis by Talo et al. (2014) the Sense of Community Index (SCI; Chavis et al., 1986; Perkins, Florin, Rich, Wandersman, & Chavis, 1990) has been the most widely used scale to measure SOC. Despite the SCI's popularity, it has still encountered criticism due to context dependency and its alignment dimensions noted by McMillan and Chavis (1986). As such, there have been multiple attempts to construct a new scale in order to provide accurate empirical assessments. These attempts have included a three-factor measure by Long and Perkins (2003), which lacked acceptable theoretical grounding in SOC but instead shares stronger theoretical grounding with group identification (Mannarini, Rochira, & Talo, 2012). Another attempt was the shortened version of the SCI and other instruments to a 10-item instrument by Obst, Smith, and Zinkiewicz (2002). However, this scale also lacked a fit with the original four dimensions of SOC. Three other scales were constructed and include the Multidimensional Territorial Sense of Community Scale (Prezza, Pacilli, Barbaranelli, & Zampatti, 2009), the Brief Sense of Community Scale (Peterson, Speer, & McMillan, 2008), and the Italian Sense of Community Scale (Tartaglia, 2006). These scales have potential for SOC research, namely their ability to investigate SOC in focused contexts. This further supports the notion that SOC is context

specific and adaptable to different groups (Cantillon et al., 2003; Hill, 1996; Hughey et al., 1999).

SOC in Sport

Following the trend from mainstream SOC research in workplace (Heller, 1989), sport has been referred to as one of the few remaining institutions where people can experience strong community feelings (Armstrong & Giulianotti, 1997; Warner, 2012a). The author supports this argument based on society becoming a more transient workforce, and often times sport being one of the few (with religion being another example) institutions that can keep people connected (Eitzen & Sage, 2009) despite the physical mobility society often witnesses. It is against this backdrop that sport SOC was formed. Early researchers posited that sport as a way to create SOC (Glover & Bates, 2006; Hardy, 1982; Lyons, 2003; Sharpe, 2005) and were interested in measuring SOC in sport-specific contexts such as on college campuses (Clopton, 2007; 2009), through the *Campus Atmosphere Scale*. Following this work, Elkins, Forrester, and Noel-Elkins (2011) measured SOC in campus recreation sport participants through the *Campus Community Scale*. While these works advanced the sport SOC literature, each of the scales used to measure SOC were grounded in the educational literature. Merely borrowing a campus SOC scale risks not capturing sport-context specific nuances (Warner, Kerwin, & Walker, 2013) that parent SOC literature has argued for when examining SOC in different contexts (Cantillon et al., 2003; Hill et al., 1999). This led to concerns over the generalizability of the scales in a sport specific context (Warner et al., 2013). Other works were devoted to studying SOC among youth sport participants and their parents (Dixon & Warner, 2012; Legg, Wells, & Barile, 2015; Warner, 2012b). These studies examined the phenomenon

through the SCI, which was rooted in McMillan and Chavis (1986) research. While these studies were valuable in forming the sport SOC research stream, the measurements used were not rooted in the sport phenomenon.

It was not until the work of Warner and Dixon (2011) when the sport-specific mechanisms were formed to embody a sport rooted phenomenon. Through their grounded theory approach, the authors found that Leadership Opportunities, Social Spaces, Competition, Equity in Administrative Decisions, and Administrative Consideration were the factors that formed SOC among collegiate athletes. These factors created the Sport and SOC theory that has been the main premise for research into sport communities (Warner & Dixon, 2011; 2013; Warner, Dixon, & Chalip, 2012). As subsequent research developed (Kellett & Warner, 2011; Warner & Dixon, 2013; Warner, Dixon, & Chalip, 2012) the factors were tested and refined over time ultimately culminating in seven factors: (a) administrative consideration, (b) common interest, (c) competition, (d) equity of administrative decisions, (e) leadership opportunities, (f) social spaces, and (g) voluntary actions. The following definitions for each factor are described in Table 2.2, based on the work of Warner and Dixon (2011; 2016), Warner, Dixon, and Chalip (2012), and Warner, Kerwin, and Walker (2013). These seven factors demonstrate the unique aspect of SOC in sport and further separated the Sport and SOC theory from the derivative approach in earlier sport SOC research.

Table 2.2. Sport SOC Factors

Sport SOC factor	Definition
Administrative Consideration	Concerned with administration's expression of care, expressing concern, invested interest in members' well-being, and intentionality.
Internal Moral Perspective	Related to the group dynamics within the community and includes the networking and friendships that form from members' common interests.
Competition	The opportunity to meet internal and external obstacles.
Equity of Administrative Decision-Making	The effort for decisions to ultimately treat members equally.
Leadership Opportunities	Focused on whether members believe there are formal and informal chances to direct other members within the community.
Social Spaces	Provide a physical space to allow for interaction among members.
Voluntary Action	Members engaging in self-fulfilling and self-determining actions without prior incentive or pressure to do so.

On the heels of this theorizing, Warner et al. (2013) constructed scale items for each factor and tested them in a youth sport context to further test the generalizability of the theory outside of college sport. Results indicated support for six of the seven factors with voluntary action removed to allow the scale greater application toward other sport contexts. Though in its infancy, the Sense of Community in Sport (SCS) scale has been used with some success. Pickett, Goldsmith, Damon, and Walker (2016), for example, used the SCS to compare sport and fitness participants across three different settings. Their

work illustrated an explicit focus toward the potential for a community to increase the value of one's fitness participation and progress (see also Heinrich, Carlisle, Kehler, & Cosgrove, 2017). Similar positive results were found by Kerwin, Warner, Walker, and Stevens (2015), who used the SCS to examine the felt community perceptions of small-scale sport event volunteers. Results indicated that SOC increased for the volunteers, specifically the dimensions of *Equity in Administrative Decisions*, *Social Spaces*, and *Common Interest*. Further, this study found the dimension of *Competition* to not fit volunteer data. Kerwin et al. (2015) proposed this dimension did not fit as "… a result of the context given that competition is not normally a component of volunteering within a small-scale sport event" (p. 89). The authors reasoned this argument further established a need to continue to research the SCS while expanding on the SCS's contextual reach. This included context-specific versions of the SCS where competition is either included or removed based on whether participants engage in the direct sport competition or competition is part of the inherent context.

Further advancing the notion of specialized sport SOC scales is the work of Luzio, Guillet-Descas, Procentese, and Martinent (2017). Luzio and colleagues (2017) created and validated the *Sport Sense of Community in Adolescence Questionnaire* (SSCAQ). While a valuable tool for measuring sport SOC in a niche context, it should be noted that the scale's recent advent and purposefully targeted population require further study before its merits can be fully assessed. Luzio et al.'s (2017) research demonstrates the increased focus sport SOC has garnered over the last few years. Much of the research on the subject has illustrated positive outcomes though, with some gaps in need of attention. In addition to the work reviewed above, several authors have expanded the study of SOC in sport. For

example, sport SOC has been applied to collegiate sport tailgating (Katz & Heere, 2013), for parents who enrolled their children in youth sport (Chalip, Lin, Green, & Dixon, 2013; Legg et al., 2015; Warner, Dixon, & Leierer, 2015), fitness participants (Berg, Warner, & Das, 2015; Pickett et al., 2016), referees and other sport officials (Kellett & Warner, 2011; Warner, Tingle, & Kellett, 2013), and sport volunteers (Dickson, Hallmann, & Phelps, 2017; Kerwin, Warner, Walker, & Stevens, 2015). The work of Dickson, Hallmann, and Phelps (2017) is of particular interest as they investigated antecedents to sport SOC in sport volunteers. Their results indicated that clarity in role and a leader's individualized consideration positively leads to SOC. The current dissertation aims to expand on their work through a leadership focus, and their findings on individualized consideration supports further investigation. Overall, while the sport SOC literature has grown over the last few years, there is a notable gap in the literature's focus.

A common missing context across all of the previously mentioned sport SOC research is that none have focused on sport organization employees. Given the trend in the parent SOC research to examine the workplace as a community and as *the* community where individuals now experience SOC (Burroughs & Eby, 1998; Dixon, Deline, McComas, Chambliss, & Hoffmann, 2015; Heller, 1989) sport management is primed to follow the research trend of examining the sport workplace for SOC. Applying sport SOC and the SCS will also further the research stream and help determine the generalizability of both in a previously unexplored sport context. This dissertation serves as a step in this direction and will examine sport SOC through a leadership lens, extending the work of Dickson et al. (2017) and also avoiding the limitations of Omolayo's (2007) leadership and SOC research.

Authentic Leadership and Sport SOC

The benefits of the above work should aid sport management researchers when attempting to integrate authentic leadership into work in OC-related outcome such as SOC. While an early foray has been made already (Kim, Kim, & Reid, 2017), the authors studied authentic leadership in a highly focused context with other contexts and theories ripe for examination. Kim et al. (2017) took a valuable first step and is an encouraging sign that other sport management scholars have recognized the value authentic leadership holds. In regard to the potential influence on sport SOC, authentic leadership's emphasis and proven influence on OCB related outcomes offers a theoretical fit. Sport SOC mirrors such outcomes since it has shown to revolve around one's felt SOC (Kerwin et al., 2015; Pickett et al., 2016; Warner & Dixon, 2016). This aspect brings about a follower's feeling of being connected to their peers and potentially leaders in sports organizations, similar to the OCB and POB outcomes influenced by authentic leadership (Banks et al., 2016; Yammarino et al., 2008). Further, SOC has been argued to allow an individual to express their authentic self (Albanesi et al., 2007; McMillan, 1996). As research on authentic leadership has shown, authentic leaders are role models for their followers (Avolio et al., 2004; Sendjaya, Pekerti, Hartel, Hirst, & Butarbutar, 2014). Through social exchange (Blau, 1964) and social learning (Bandura, 1977), followers will begin to emulate the behavior of their leaders. If sport organizations wish to allow their employees to express their authentic selves (and potentially reap the positive benefits, such as lower turnover and higher engagement) then they should aim to find authentic leaders and create SOC. Thus, an authentic leader possesses the potential to best model authentic behavior for followers to replicate through sport SOC, where they feel connected to those around them and safe to

express their authentic selves. The current study aims to explore the exact fit between authentic leadership and sport SOC.

Summary

The above literature review has spanned SOC and sport SOC, and authentic leadership theory. With authentic leadership research in sport lacking, and a limited understanding of how leadership influences sport SOC, the current study aims to begin to fill in this gap. Specifically, this dissertation aims to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: *Is authentic leadership associated with sport SOC?*

RQ2: *How do the dimensions of authentic leadership influence the dimensions of sport SOC?*

The following chapter III details the methods this study will undertake in order to answer these research questions. Included are sampling procedures, the measures used for each theory, and data analysis techniques. Also included are control variables based on previous leadership research.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

The purpose of this dissertation is to test the relationship between authentic leadership and sport SOC. Included in the dissertation is testing correlations among the four dimensions of authentic leadership to determine how the dimensions are associated with one another, and to determine if authentic leadership is associated with sport SOC. Next, the design of this study will determine the differences in strength of association among the four authentic leadership dimensions and each of the six sport SOC dimensions. The chapter outline is as follows: (a) sampling, (b) measurement, and (c) data analysis.

Sampling Methods

Participants for the current study were recruited through Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) survey website. Recent scholars have conducted thorough analyses to determine the viability, reliability and potential downfalls from using MTurk versus traditional survey methods (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Mason & Suri, 2012; Paolacci, Chandler, & Ipeirotis, 2010). In order assuage potential pitfalls of MTurk, such as self-selection, participants leaving a survey early, and participants misrepresenting their qualifications (Cheung, Burns, Sinclair, & Sliter, 2017; Goodman & Paolacci, 2017), prescriptive measures were put in place. In accordance with the advice of the scholars mentioned above, a prescreening survey was included, as suggested by Cheung, Burns, Sinclair, and Sliter (2017) and Goodman and Paolacci (2017). The prescreening survey asked participants about their experience working in sport and their general knowledge about leadership. As recommended by Goodman and Paolacci (2017), participants who passed the prescreening were requested to accept the 'HIT' (MTurk terminology for

accepting a survey) in order to formally enroll in the study. The prescreening procedure helped to prevent participants from previewing the study before enrollment (Goodman & Paolacci, 2017).

To protect against method-bias the HIT included two surveys for participants to fill out two days apart. The first survey included the demographic variables and ALQ. The second survey included the SCS in order to measure sport SOC. Through demographic control in MTurk, only participants who reside in the United States were permitted to participate in the study. Based on a sample size calculation with a confidence interval of 95%, and a target population of over 400,000 sport and entertainment industry employees (Bureau of Labor and Statistics, 2017), a sample size of N=384 is required (Cohen, 1988). The first survey targeted N=400 total participants in order to guard against participants dropping out of the study between the first and second surveys. The demographic and descriptive variables pertaining to the sample were obtained and included: race, age, gender, income, tenure at current organization, size of current organization, and current position within their organization. These variables for both the participants (i.e., followers) and leaders are prescribed by the general leadership and management literature (Bernerth, Cole, Taylor, & Walker, in-press). Bernerth, Cole, Taylor, and Walker (in-press) determined in their review of control variables in leadership research that most authentic leadership studies have used these same variables as a way to further develop the understanding of who is an authentic leader and who are their followers. Given the exploratory nature of the current study, along with the emerging literature on authentic leadership theory, these variables helped to characterize this type of leader and their followers in a sport context. To further describe both authentic leadership and sport SOC,

the type of sport organization (e.g., for-profit or not-for-profit), and business sector (e.g., professional sport league or franchise, intercollegiate sport, recreation/tourism sport, sport-for-development, sport-good provider, and sport fitness) were collected. The control variables were used to guard against distortions (Bernerth et al., in-press) in the observed relationship between authentic leadership and SOC. Certain control variables were used to categorize participants based on their sport organization, business sector, and gender. Similarly, these variables were used to categorize participants' leader in order to determine how SOC is represented in different sport organizations, by male and female leaders, and how different sport organizations, and different gendered leaders may have different levels of authentic leadership. These variables are in line with the current prescription in leadership literature (Bernerth et al., in-press).

Instrumentation

Authentic leadership was measured using the ALQ (Walumbwa, et al., 2008). Participants were asked to rate their leader using the ALQ and the four dimensions of authentic leadership (i.e., self-awareness, relational transparency, internal moral compass, and balanced processing), which are rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale (0= not at all, 4= frequently, if not always). Sense of community (SOC) was measured using the Sense of Community Sport (SCS) scale by Warner, Kerwin, and Walker (2013). Participants were asked to rate their perceptions on sense of community within their organization, based on six dimensions: administrative consideration, common interests, equity in decision-making, leadership opportunities, social spaces, and competition. All of these items are anchored on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree).

Data Analysis

The analyses include descriptive statistics in order to describe the sample characteristics, and correlation analysis to test for association between authentic leadership and sport SOC. Next, multivariate multiple regression (MMR) was used to answer RQ1 and determine what dimension of authentic leadership is most likely to influence each dimension of sport SOC (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 1983). Next, confidence interval testing was performed in order to answer RQ2. The analyses were conducted after checking the internal reliability of the scales used.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Below are the descriptions of the sample obtained for the current study, the results of statistical analyses performed, and tabular representation of the data and results throughout. The results and analyses are presented in the following manner: (a) sampling, (b) scale descriptive, reliability, and confirmatory factor analysis statistics, (c) correlation analysis and results, (d) multivariate multiple regression (MMR) results, and comparison of confidence intervals results (e) authentic leadership global construct regression results.

Sampling

Quantitative data were collected via online questionnaires through MTurk with two separate questionnaires, at different time points, to avoid common method bias. Further, the two-questionnaire approach separated the independent variable (IV) authentic leadership (i.e., questionnaire one) from the dependent variable (DV) sport SOC (i.e., questionnaire two). Demographic information on the leader, participant, and their organization were collected on questionnaire one in order to detect any differences among the variables. Respondents who completed both questionnaires were matched via their IP address.

The two-questionnaire approach began with prescreening items asking potential participants to indicate their current position and job role in the sport industry. Also, in the introduction section of the questionnaire, participants were reminded at the successful completion of questionnaire one to return to MTurk for the second questionnaire. This approach helped to ensure the participants received full payment for their participation

(i.e., $.50 for each questionnaire). Once the data were collected, several analyses were performed in order to ascertain descriptive information.

The final sample size from questionnaire one was 321, and questionnaire two was 162. While the target sample size was 400 respondents for each questionnaire, several reasons explain the lower response rate. Questionnaire one had 400 attempts; however, after parsing out those who did not work in sport, the remaining number was 330. From here, the attention check question further reduced the number of usable responses to N=321. In addition, while N=321 comprised the final sample size, there were 280 questionnaires marked as 'in-progress', which were not accessible since the respondents did not enter the questionnaire confirmation code as a sign of completion. Questionnaire two had N=185 total responses at the time of analysis; however, similar issues to those noted in questionnaire one occurred. Questionnaire two had 185 total responses; however, only 162 responses were usable based on their current employment status with a sport organization. In addition to the 162 total responses, there were *n*=52 responses marked as 'in-progress', which were not accessible since the respondents did not enter the questionnaire confirmation code to signal completion. Such an issue hinted at the possibility of participants who were not eligible for questionnaire one attempted to join in questionnaire two and were denied. Further, a power analysis through the G*Power calculator was performed to ensure that 162 usable responses would yield the requisite power for the subsequent analyses. Upon conclusion of the calculation, questionnaire two was deemed to have an appropriate power of 0.95. Therefore, the final sample size 162 was used for both surveys, survey one and survey two responses were matched via their IP address.

Sample Characteristics

First, the data were reviewed for abnormalities within scale scores. Once this was completed, frequency and descriptive statistics were calculated to summarize the data. The following demographic information describes the sample characteristics for the participants, their sport organization leader, and the organization each participant worked for. The most commonly observed leader race was Caucasian (*n*=116, 71.60%) while the most commonly observed leader gender was male (*n* = 134, 82.71%). The sample's leader age ranged from 22-78 years (*M* = 42.42). Leader tenure ranged from 1-40 years (*M* = 9.60), and most participants indicated their leader's income to be in the $50-75,000 range (*n* = 46, 28.40%). Finally, most participants reported their leader to hold a mid-level manager position (*n* = 72, 44.44%). Regarding the respondents, the most frequently reported race was Caucasian (*n* = 111, 68.52%) and the most observed participant gender was male (*n* = 102, 63.00%). Participant ages ranged from 21-71 years (*M* = 31.20), and their tenure in their present position ranged from 1-22 years (*M* = 4.50). The most frequently reported participant income was the less than $50,000 (*n* = 71, 43.83%). Participants most often reported their current position as non-manager, mid-level employee (*n* = 47, 29.01%). The most often reported organization category was for-profit (*n* = 105, 64.81%), with organizational sizes ranging from 3-50,000 employees. The most frequently reported organizational business sector was a professional sport team or league (*n* = 51, 31.50%), followed by sport-for-development (*n* = 35, 21.60%), recreation or tourism (*n* = 30, 18.51%), intercollegiate sport (*n* = 30, 18.51%), followed by sport or fitness service provider was next (*n* = 9, 5.60%) and sport-goods provider (*n* = 7, 4.32%. Full frequencies are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1. Frequency Table for Sample Variables

Variable	Leader		Participant	
	n	%	*n*	%
Race				
African American	18	11.11	20	12.35
Caucasian	116	71.60	111	68.51
Native American	6	3.70	3	1.90
Asian	10	6.20	16	9.90
Hispanic	12	7.41	11	6.80
Other	0	0.00	1	0.60
Rather Not Say	0	0.00	0	0.00
Gender				
Female	28	17.30	59	36.42
Male	134	82.71	102	63.00
Rather Not Say	0	0.00	1	0.60
Organizational Position				
Top-level Manager	58	35.80	5	3.10
Mid-level Manager	72	44.44	38	23.50
Non-manager, top-level employee	16	9.90	40	24.70
Non-manager, mid-level employee	10	6.20	47	29.01
Non-manager, entry-level employee	2	1.23	24	14.81
Not sure/Other	4	2.46	4	2.46
Intern	0	0.00	4	2.46

Descriptive, Reliability and Validity Statistics

Summary statistics for the scales were calculated next. The statistics included mean scores, standard deviation, and internal consistency calculations (see Table 4.2). Mean scores for each dimension of authentic leadership ranged from *M*=2.66-2.73. Mean scores for sport SOC ranged from M=4.77-5.20.

Skewness and kurtosis were calculated in order to determine if the data were normally distributed. It should be noted that a desirable value for skewness is within 2 or -2. When the skewness is greater than or equal to 2 or less than or equal to -2, the variable is considered to be asymmetrical (Pallant, 2013). Similarly, kurtosis should be between 7 and -7. If the kurtosis is greater than or equal to 3, the variable's distribution is different than a normal distribution in regards to producing outliers (Westfall & Henning, 2013). The skewness and kurtosis values (respectively) ranged as follows: authentic transparency (-.24, -.34), authentic internal moral compass (-.45, .10), authentic balanced processing (-.38, .09), authentic self-awareness (-.38, .12), SOC administrative consideration (-.71, .21), SOC common-interest (-.67, .08), SOC equity in decision-making (-.34, -.42), SOC leadership opportunities (-.46, .14), SOC social spaces (-.58, -23), and SOC competition (-.49, -.11). Given the numbers for both skewness and kurtosis were all near 0, the data were deemed to be normally distributed with some non-problematic negative skewness on all variables. The kurtosis values do indicate a rather flat distribution, meaning the data lack a large cluster in the center and instead illustrate values at the extreme values.

Lance, Butts, and Michels (2006) noted the importance of scale reliability, suggesting a Cronbach's alpha threshold of .70. Here, all scale items for authentic

leadership and sport SOC were acceptable (alphas > .70). With the preliminary analyses having passed their respective thresholds, correlation analysis was performed next.

Table 4.2. *Summary Statistics and Internal Consistency Scores*

Variable/Scale	*N*	Cronbach's α	M	SD
Authentic Leadership	162			
Relational Transparency	162	.82	2.73	0.77
Internal Moral Perspective	162	.85	2.72	0.86
Balanced Processing	162	.76	2.66	0.87
Self-awareness	162	.83	2.68	0.84
Sport SOC	162			
Administrative Consideration	162	.89	5.20	1.15
Common Interest	162	.85	5.14	1.24
Equity in Administrative Decisions	162	.83	4.91	1.30
Leadership Opportunities	162	.86	4.80	1.25
Social Spaces	162	.88	5.14	1.19
Competition	162	.83	5.07	1.20

Note: Authentic Leadership Likert-type scale of 0-4, Sport SOC Likert-type scale of 1-7.

Correlation Analyses

Following the aforementioned analyses, correlation analysis was performed to determine the relationship between authentic leadership and sport SOC. A Pearson correlation analysis was conducted among the four authentic leadership dimensions (i.e., relational transparency, self-awareness, internal moral compass, and balanced processing) and the six dimensions of sport SOC (i.e., administrative consideration, common interests, equity in decision-making, leadership opportunities, social spaces, and competition). A Pearson correlation does have the stipulation of the relationship between each pair of variables holds a constant direction (Conover & Iman, 1981; Pallant, 2013). The stipulation is important to note in order to test to ensure the variables share a linear association with one another.

The correlation analysis (see Table 4.3) revealed the authentic leadership dimensions are significantly and highly correlated with each other, as is the case with the sport SOC dimensions. Such a relationship is to be expected, given the results of the earlier validity tests and that dimensions of a multidimensional scale are conceptually related (Kopcha, Ottenbreit-Leftwich, Jung, & Baser, 2014; Sony & Naik, 2012). In other words, high correlations among dimensions is expected with multidimensional scaling, given their conceptual similarity (Kopcha et al., 2014). Similarly, high correlations among the sport SOC dimensions were previously reported for the SCS during its creation (see Warner et al., 2013) and subsequent validation (see Kerwin et al., 2015) as well as for the ALQ (see Walumbwa et al., 2008). Further, to determine if multicollinearity was an issue, Tolerance and variable inflation factors (VIF) were analyzed to determine if their respective cutoff values of less than .10 Tolerance and greater than 10 VIF were violated (Craney & Surles

2007; Pallant, 2013). Authentic leadership illustrated Tolerance greater than .10, and VIF range from 2.4 to 3.4, thus indicating that multicollinearity was not violated. Sport SOC similarly illustrated Tolerance values greater than .10, and VIF range from 2.0 to 4.8; which also indicated that violations of multicollinearity were not seen. Despite authentic leadership and sport SOC shown high correlations among their dimensions, there were also some significant correlations between the two scales. Namely, three sport SOC dimensions were significantly correlated to authentic leadership transparency: administrative consideration (r = -.17, p<.05), equity in decision-making (r = -.16, p<.05), and social spaces (r = -.17, p<.05). The other correlation values, low and also negative, indicate a negative relationship between authentic leadership and sport SOC. This result shows that despite the potential theoretical relationship between the two variables presented earlier, authentic leadership is negatively and weakly correlated to sport SOC.

Table 4.3. Pearson Correlation Matrix

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Relational Transparency	-									
2. Internal Moral Compass	0.78**	-								
3. Balanced Processing	0.75**	0.73**	-							
4. Self-awareness	0.74**	0.72**	0.81**	-						
5. Administrative Consideration	-0.17*	-0.10	-0.10	-0.04	-					
6. Common Interests	-0.13	-0.11	-0.11	-0.04	0.84**	-				
7. Equity in Decision-making	-0.16*	-0.11	-0.13	-0.03	0.79**	0.70**	-			
8. Leadership Opportunities	-0.06	-0.09	-0.10	0.01	0.66**	0.69**	0.68**	-		
9. Social Spaces	-0.17*	-0.14	-0.14	-0.10	0.78**	0.82**	0.66**	0.60**	-	
10. Competition	-0.11	-0.10	-0.13	-0.03	0.61**	0.66**	0.60**	0.65**	0.65**	-

*Note: *- Correlation significant at .05 level; **- Correlation significant at .01 level*

Multivariate Multiple Regression

The first research question sought to investigate how dimensions of authentic leadership are associated with the dimensions of sport SOC. To answer the research question, MMR was used to determine the influence of each authentic leadership dimension on each sport SOC dimension. Control variables of leader: race, age, gender, tenure, position, and income were included in the analysis. The results of the MMR illustrated significant relationships between sport SOC administrative consideration and authentic leadership transparency as well as a significant relationship between sport SOC equity in decision-making and authentic leadership self-awareness. No other statistically significant relationships between dimensions were found (see Table 4.4). Statistics related to the leader demographic control variables are also listed in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4. Multivariate Multiple Regression of Authentic Leadership to Sport SOC

Dependent Variable:	Independent Variable:	ß	SE(ß)	*t*	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	95% Confidence Interval
Sport SOC Dimensions	**Authentic Leadership Dimensions**					**Lower**	**Upper**
Administrative Consideration	Transparency	-0.441	0.208	-2.12	.035*	-0.851	-0.031
	Moral Compass	0.046	0.18	0.255	0.799	-0.31	0.401
	Balanced Processing	-0.118	0.193	-0.612	0.541	-0.501	0.264
	Self-awareness	0.315	0.195	1.61	0.109	-0.071	0.701
Common Interests	Transparency	-0.236	0.226	-1.04	0.3	-0.683	0.211
	Moral Compass	-0.06	0.196	-0.305	0.76	-0.447	0.328
	Balanced Processing	-0.216	0.211	-1.02	0.308	-0.632	0.201
	Self-awareness	0.324	0.213	1.52	0.13	-0.096	0.745
Equity in Decision-Making	Transparency	-0.381	0.231	-1.674	0.101	-0.838	0.076
	Moral Compass	-0.03	0.201	-0.149	0.882	-0.426	0.366
	Balanced Processing	-0.318	0.216	-1.47	0.143	-0.744	0.108
	Self-awareness	0.506	0.218	2.322	.021*	0.076	0.936
Leadership Opportunities	Transparency	-0.007	0.228	-0.031	0.975	-0.457	0.443
	Moral Compass	-0.164	0.198	-0.83	0.408	-0.554	0.226
	Balanced Processing	-0.3	0.212	-1.42	0.159	-0.72	0.119
	Self-awareness	0.371	0.214	1.729	0.086	-0.053	0.794
Social Spaces	Transparency	-0.283	0.216	-1.31	0.192	-0.71	0.144
	Moral Compass	-0.023	0.187	-0.125	0.901	-0.394	0.347
	Balanced Processing	-0.131	0.202	-0.652	0.515	-0.529	0.267
	Self-awareness	0.185	0.203	0.907	0.336	-0.217	0.586
Competition	Transparency	-0.117	0.218	-0.538	0.591	-0.548	0.313
	Moral Compass	-0.067	0.189	-0.355	0.723	-0.44	0.306
	Balanced Processing	-0.331	0.203	-1.63	0.105	-0.732	0.07
	Self-awareness	0.359	0.205	1.752	0.082	-0.046	0.764

*Note. Values are standardized β's: *p < .05.*

Table 4.4. Continued

Dependent Variable: Sport SOC Dimensions	Control Variable: Leader Demographics	ß	SE(ß)	*t*	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower	95% Confidence Interval Upper
Administrative Consideration	Leader Race	0.007	0.101	0.073	0.942	-0.192	0.207
	Leader Gender	-0.01	0.263	-0.039	0.969	-0.529	0.509
	Leader Age	0	0.011	-0.032	0.975	-0.023	0.022
	Leader Tenure	0.007	0.016	0.447	0.656	-0.024	0.038
	Leader Position	0.072	0.09	0.792	0.429	-0.107	0.25
	Leader Income	-0.025	0.07	-0.354	0.724	-0.163	0.113
Common Interests	Leader Race	0.023	0.11	0.21	0.834	-0.193	0.239
	Leader Gender	0.113	0.285	0.398	0.691	-0.449	0.676
	Leader Age	-0.003	0.012	-0.208	0.835	-0.027	0.022
	Leader Tenure	0.013	0.017	0.777	0.439	-0.021	0.047
	Leader Position	0.067	0.098	0.682	0.497	-0.127	0.261
	Leader Income	-0.044	0.076	-0.579	0.563	-0.194	0.106
Equity in Decision-Making	Leader Race	-0.157	0.112	-1.406	0.162	-0.379	0.064
	Leader Gender	-0.343	0.291	-1.179	0.24	-0.918	0.232
	Leader Age	-0.005	0.013	-0.399	0.69	-0.03	0.02
	Leader Tenure	-0.005	0.018	-0.286	0.775	-0.04	0.03
	Leader Position	-0.047	0.1	-0.466	0.642	-0.245	0.151
	Leader Income	-0.093	0.078	-1.198	0.233	-0.246	0.06
Leadership Opportunities	Leader Race	-0.092	0.11	-0.844	0.4	-0.309	0.124
	Leader Gender	0.025	0.285	0.088	0.93	-0.538	0.588
	Leader Age	0.003	0.012	0.222	0.825	-0.022	0.027
	Leader Tenure	0.012	0.017	0.71	0.479	-0.022	0.046
	Leader Position	0.043	0.098	0.439	0.661	-0.151	0.237
	Leader Income	-0.103	0.076	-1.354	0.178	-0.253	0.047

Table 4.4. Continued.

Dependent Variable:	Control Variable:	ß	SE(ß)	*t*	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	95% Confidence Interval
Sport SOC Dimensions	**Leader Demographics**					**Lower**	**Upper**
Social Spaces	Leader Race	0.039	0.102	0.382	0.703	-0.163	0.241
	Leader Gender	0.197	0.265	0.742	0.459	-0.328	0.721
	Leader Age	-0.003	0.012	-0.28	0.78	-0.026	0.02
	Leader Tenure	0.013	0.016	0.806	0.421	-0.019	0.044
	Leader Position	0.054	0.091	0.586	0.559	-0.127	0.234
	Leader Income	0.045	0.071	0.633	0.528	-0.095	0.185
Competition	Leader Race	-0.059	0.103	-0.569	0.57	-0.265	0.147
	Leader Gender	0.12	0.271	0.442	0.659	-0.416	0.655
	Leader Age	0.006	0.012	0.529	0.597	-0.017	0.03
	Leader Tenure	0.013	0.016	0.78	0.437	-0.02	0.045
	Leader Position	0.118	0.093	1.265	0.208	-0.066	0.303
	Leader Income	-0.053	0.072	-0.738	0.462	-0.196	0.089

*Note. Values are standardized β's: *p < .05.*

The results indicated that for RQ1, only two significant relationships were evident. Specifically, authentic leadership relational transparency influenced sport SOC administrative consideration of decision-making, and authentic leadership self-awareness influenced sport SOC equity in decision-making. In terms of practical significance, the R^2 values illustrate that transparency explains 4.7% variance of sport SOC administrative consideration dimension, while self-awareness explains 5.9% of variance of sport SOC equity in decision-making. Therefore, the results illustrate that for RQ1, minimal association between authentic leadership dimensions and sport SOC dimensions is evident in the current sample. Given the lack of support and significance for RQ1, it was not expected that the dimensions of authentic leadership would differ in the association with the sport SOC dimensions (i.e., RQ2). In order to assess RQ2, the confidence intervals presented in Table 4.4 were used to determine if they overlap with each other among each dependent variable dimension. Cumming (2014) and Masson and Loftus (2003) have found this method was successful in detecting different associations among groups or dimensions of an independent variable across a dependent variable. Therefore, given past success and at the recommendation of Cumming (2014) and Masson and Loftus (2003), the same method was employed in the current study. With the reported confidence interval parameters (95%) for each authentic leadership dimension to the dependent sport SOC dimensions showing overlap among one another, there are no statistically significant differences among authentic leadership and sport SOC. Therefore, RQ2 is answered such that, for the current sample, authentic leadership dimensions do not differ among one another in their association with sport SOC. Interpretations of these results will be discussed in further detail in chapter V. The final analysis performed involved collapsing

the authentic leadership dimensions into one global construct, as recommended by Sendjaya et al. (2016) and Wang, Sui, Luthans, Wang, and Wu (2014) in order to assess the influence of the composite authentic leadership construct on sport SOC.

Authentic Leadership Global Construct Regression Results

Following the methods of Sendjaya et al. (2016) and Wang et al. (2014), the four dimensions of authentic leadership were collapsed into one global authentic leadership construct in order to measure authentic leadership's overall influence on sport SOC. Despite previous researchers finding significant results through a global authentic leadership construct (Sendjaya et al., 2016; Wong et al., 2014), the current results did not reveal any significant effects (see Table 4.5).

Table 4.5. *Multiple Regression of Authentic Leadership to Sport SOC*

Dependent Variable: Sport SOC Dimensions	Independent Variable: Authentic Leadership Global	ß	SE(ß)	*t*	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower	95% Confidence Interval Upper
Administrative Consideration	Global	-.166	.120	-1.39	.168	-.403	.071
Common Interests	Global	-.175	.130	-1.35	.178	-.431	.081
Equity in Decision-making	Global	-.203	.134	-1.51	.133	-.468	.063
Leadership Opportunities	Global	-.111	.131	-.846	.399	-.369	.148
Social Spaces	Global	-.236	.123	-1.91	.057	-.480	.008
Competition	Global	-.158	.125	-1.26	.208	-.406	.089

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter provides a synthesis of the results as they pertain to the impact on sport management and related theory and is organized as follows: (a) discussion and interpretation of results, (b) implications and recommendations, (c) limitations, (d) future research, and (e) conclusion.

Discussion and Interpretation of Results

Based on the results presented in chapter IV, several notable outcomes of the research are gleaned. First, authentic leadership and sport SOC shared weak, negative correlations among some dimensions. Second, two dimensions of authentic leadership (i.e., relational transparency and self-awareness) significantly influenced two sport SOC dimensions (i.e., administrative consideration and equity in decision-making, respectively). Third, the research found no statistical differences between the dimensions of authentic leadership and their influence on sport SOC dimensions. Lastly, collapsing the authentic leadership dimensions into a global construct did not result in a significant relationship to sport SOC dimensions.

Results from the correlation analysis ran counter to argument presented in Chapter I, whereby the significant correlations were weak and negative. Despite the weak and negative correlations, previous researchers (Shapira-Lishchinksy & Tsemach, 2014) were still able to find significant results in higher order analyses. Therefore, the MMR and confidence interval testing were performed in order to answer the two research questions.

RQ1: *Is authentic leadership associated with sport SOC?*

RQ2: *How do the dimensions of authentic leadership differ in their association with the dimensions of sport SOC?*

Following the correlation analysis, the MMR suggested significant relationships between authentic leadership and sport SOC. Specifically, the analyses revealed that relational transparency significantly influenced administrative consideration within sport SOC; and self-awareness dimension significantly influenced equity in decision-making within sport SOC. These results answered RQ1, showing that authentic leadership is (at least tangentially) associated with sport SOC. Specifically, administrative consideration (SOC) characterizes concern with the work administration's expression of care, concern, and member well-being (Warner et al., 2013). This SOC dimension was influenced by relational transparency, which measures personal emotions, thoughts, and helps researchers understand open relationship with followers (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Theoretical support for this relationship stems from elements of followership and development seen in authentic leadership (Eagly, 2005; Gardner et al., 2011; Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005). Researchers have noted that when authentic leaders speak with followers about their emotions, goals, and true self, follower belief in the leader increased as did their ability to open up to their leader and others (Weischer, Weibler, & Peterson, 2013). In other words, followers felt more at ease about expressing their authentic selves to those around them through these transparent interactions with their leader. The current results depict an explicit relationship of relational transparency influencing follower's concern over how administration (i.e., leadership) expressed their care and concern toward follower well-being. A follower would then believe that through

the relational transparency process, that their leader has expressed concern and care, or administrative consideration toward the follower's well-being.

The other significant relationship was between self-awareness and equity in administrative decision-making. Self-awareness entails knowledge of the self, formed from values, knowledge, strengths and weaknesses, and self-reflection (Walumbwa et al., 2008). According to Warner et al. (2013), equity in administrative decision-making boils down to the effort by administration to treat all members equally. This relationship is surprising on the surface, given the inward nature of self-awareness, and the seemingly outward nature of decision-making. However, Klenke (2005) found that emotional intelligence led to self-awareness, and eventual development into an authentic leader. Since emotional intelligence involves recognizing, controlling, and interacting with other's emotions, as well as understanding how one's own emotions impact those around them (Klenke, 2005), emotional intelligence provides both an inward and outward concept to self-awareness. Therefore, I argue that an authentic leader who is high in self-awareness has a keen insight into how their actions influence follower emotions. The insight is based on how emotional intelligence contributes to forming self-awareness, which can manifest through the leader's effort to treat their followers equally in the decision-making process, since they are aware of how their decisions can impact their follower emotions. Such an argument idea supports the current results, whereby equal treatment through decision-making was done via self-awareness, which is rooted in emotional intelligence and knowledge of the self.

The current results of RQ1 are a step toward furthering sport manager and researcher understanding of how authentic leadership can fit in the sport management discourse. The results also help to advance the sport SOC literature by examining sport

SOC among sport employees, a context not previously examined; and by explaining how two dimensions of sport SOC are influenced by two dimensions of authentic leadership, a relationship that was not previously uncovered.

RQ2 was examined through confidence intervals from the MMR for each authentic leadership dimension on each sport SOC dimension. Cumming (2014) and Masson and Loftus (2003) championed the technique to compare confidence interval overlap among sample means in regression as a way to determine if variable mean scores were significantly different from one another. This technique was used in the current study to determine if the authentic leadership dimensions (i.e., mean scores) differed in their association with sport SOC dimensions. Based on the low number of significant relationships from the MMR, it was expected that the dimensions of authentic leadership would not differ in the association with sport SOC, which was confirmed. According to Cumming (2014) and Masson and Loftus (2003), when overlaps occur, there are no significantly different associations among the authentic leader dimensions in regards to the sport SOC dimensions. This result makes sense since the MMR did not show many significant relationships for RQ1. This result is explained given the strong correlations that the ALQ dimensions had with one another. While not strong enough for multicollinearity concerns, the dimensions may be theoretically too related in order to ascertain dimension level differences among one another in their association toward an outcome variable.

Based on these results, a follow-up analysis was performed in an attempt to learn more about the non-significant relationships. The follow-up analysis also addressed some of the potential theoretical shortcomings found in the dimension-level analysis of the ALQ, such as the above noted lack of dimensional differences. This regression involved

collapsing the authentic leadership dimensions into a global construct, then regressing them on the sport SOC dimensions (see Sendjaya et al., 2016; Shapira-Lishchinksy & Tsemach, 2014; Wang et al., 2014). This was done to determine how the sport SOC dimensions were influenced by a global construct of authentic leadership in order to fully vet the possible relationships between authentic leadership, and the sport SOC dimensions; and to provide a more thorough view of this relationship along with the dimension-dimension level analyses. Despite the results indicating no statistically significant relationships from global authentic leadership to the sport SOC dimensions, this was not surprising, given the lack of significant results in earlier analyses.

Overall, results from the current study help to enhance sport practitioner, as well as academician understanding of sport SOC in the sport work context. The discipline's understanding was enhanced by first using the SCS in the sport employee context, an area that had not been previously explored. Second, according to the MMR results, sport practitioners can now strive to integrate two aspects of authentic leadership (i.e., self-awareness and relational transparency) in order to positively influence two aspects of sport SOC (i.e., equity in decision-making and administrative consideration). Third, researchers now have a foundation (albeit a single study with limitations) to build future authentic leadership research upon as well as future research on sport SOC among employees. Lastly, researchers can also use the current results to investigate how the ALQ and SCS may be used in future studies that explore sport contexts that have not yet been explored; and assuage possible limitations to each instrument in different contexts and sampling procedures.

Implications and Recommendations

The current study provides sport management researchers with evidence to further explore authentic leadership in sport. For example, the current study contributes an initial understanding of how authentic leadership helps foster certain dimensions of SOC. The results show that sport SOC equity in decision-making and administrative consideration are partially explained by authentic leadership self-awareness and relational transparency, respectively. There are several specific implications and recommendations based on the results of current study.

First, the results (including the correlation analysis) indicate the possibility that authentic leadership and sport SOC are not related. Despite the theoretical argument presented in earlier chapters, the data show little support for the theoretical relationship between authentic leadership and sport SOC. Second, the results of the study suggest that authentic leadership does influence some aspects of sport SOC. Specifically, the results illustrate that relational transparency and self-awareness influence the SOC dimensions of administrative consideration and equity in administrative decision-making. Further, the current study focused on sport SOC among sport employees, a context previously not examined in the sport SOC research. Therefore, the current study adds to the sport SOC research line by integrating sport employees. This helps sport SOC research take further form by integrating a new context, similar to the evolution that SOC research went through as scholars also studied SOC in the workplace (Burroughs & Eby, 1998; Klein & D'Aunno, 1986; Preece, 2000). The further integration of sport SOC into various sport contexts is especially prudent given that sport has been identified as one of the few remaining institutions which can manifest SOC (Warner & Dixon, 2016). Now, there is

evidence that further buttresses this notion even among sport employees and is not just limited to the previously studied contexts (i.e. sport participants, volunteers, and parents).

Third, based on the current results, sport managers who wish to foster two facets of SOC as an aspect of their organizational culture (OC) should seek to increase their leader's ability to engage in relational transparency and self-awareness. The previous point is important for sport given the societal trends of an increasingly transient workforce and sport being one of the few contexts that still manifests connection among organizational employees, and community members despite the transient nature facing most other contexts (Eitzen & Sage, 2009; Glover & Bates, 2006; Leggs, Wells, & Barile, 2015). When previous OC and leadership research is considered, the above argument is further emphasized. Schein (2010) argued there is a dynamic and mutual relationship between OC and leadership, where an increased understanding in one concept will help increase the understanding in the other. For example, MacIntosh and Doherty (2010) found sport employees viewed OC as an indicator of job satisfaction and commitment. Similarly, Wells and Welty Peachey (2011) recommended that scholars investigate specific leadership styles as they relate to OC. The current study suggests that authentic leadership can positively influence one aspect of OC. This is an important consideration given that sport organizations with a strong OC have been found to possess a competitive advantage over those organizations without a strong OC (Tojari, Heris, & Zarei, 2011).

Further, leaders should be concerned about fostering the SOC outcomes among their followers given that OC is shaped through the leader-follower relationship (Schneider, 1987), and the primary responsibility of leaders is to shape and manage the OC (Schein, 1990). For example, having an OC where followers acknowledge their leadership

cares for their well-being, can positively influence follower commitment (McMurray, Pirola-Merlo, Sarros, & Islam, 2010). Further, when followers are engaged in transparent relationships with their leader, while also engaged in the decision-making process, there tends to be an increase in follower engagement and increased performance (Avolio et al., 2004; Kiersch & Byrne, 2015; Leroy et al., 2012). A potential benefit to a sport organization's OC through equal treatment of all is characterized by diversity and inclusion (Cunningham & Singer, 2009). SOC has been shown to allow individuals to be their authentic selves (Albanesi et al., 2007; McMillan, 1996), which theoretically can help diverse individuals express themselves freely and maintain a sense of inclusion or belonging through SOC (Talo et al., 2014). It also stands to reason that if managers wish to increase follower engagement and performance, they want to ensure they are positively influencing equity in decision-making among their followers, and actively showing administrative consideration.

The final implication expands on the overall importance of sport SOC in a leadership context. Given that sport has been considered as one of the few remaining contexts in society to foster a SOC (Armstrong & Giulianotti, 1997; Warner & Dixon, 2016; Warner et al., 2013), insight into what creates this part of OC would prove valuable for sport managers. Given that SOC is context specific (Cantillon et al., 2003; Hahm et al., 2016; Heller, 1989; Hill, 1996), sport provides a powerful context for SOC research given the uniqueness and high identification of sport employees (Swanson & Kent, 2014) and sport as one of the few institutions to foster SOC (Armstrong & Giulianotti, 1997; Warner & Dixon, 2016); and general management could begin to cultivate factors that lead to a context-specific SOC. Such an endeavor would prove valuable in order share in the

potential benefits seen by sport organizations from SOC such as a stronger OC (Tojari et al., 2011) and highly identified organization employees (Swanson & Kent, 2014). In addition, management researchers would be able to expand on a research stream, which will increase their understanding of OC through a SOC. Therefore, the responsibility to preserve SOC among sport and general business management falls to both researchers and managers in each discipline. Further investigation into sport SOC antecedents and outcomes merits significant attention in order to maintain sport as one of the last social institutions for SOC (Warner & Dixon, 2016). To this end, Warner and Dixon (2016) proffered that sport managers stand to benefit from understanding how a sport SOC is created given the role that sport has in today's society as one of the last contexts to foster and sustain a community feeling for individuals.

While sport SOC stands as an exciting line of further inquiry as a contributing factor to sport organizations OC, so too does authentic leadership. The results of the current study represent a small step toward integrating authentic leadership into sport management research. While only a couple of the current results were statistically significant, the results do provide a reference point for future research.

Limitations

The following limitations should be acknowledged for the current study. First, while the use of Amazon's MTurk has generally produced reliable data (Buhrmester et al., 2011; Mason & Suri, 2012; Paolacci et al., 2010), there still exists the possibility of participants inflating their scores on any survey medium when a form of payment is involved (Bartneck, Duenser, Moltchanova, & Zawieska, 2015). The current study aimed to assuage this issue by offering participants payment comparable to similar HITs on

MTurk at the time. Also, a limitation of the online MTurk platform, is the inability to fact check participants, namely to ensure that participants truly worked in sport, and did not simply list a sport organization to gain access to the survey. Further research should be cautious about a survey approach and consider triangulating data with qualitative methods. Second, the desired sample size of 400 was not achieved when matching survey-1 and survey-2 responses (N=162). While power analyses verified the sample size was acceptable, it is possible that a larger sample size for both surveys would help increase the generalizability and determine if some of the dimension-dimension relationships in the MMR that were approaching significance would become significant (Pallant, 2013). According to Firestone (1993), depending on the size of the population that a researcher wishes to generalize to, certain increases in sample size will aid this endeavor. While Firestone (1993) and Kukull and Ganguli (2012) note that there is a sample size of diminished returns towards generalizability and significance, they mention that these are typically sample sizes in the mid to upper hundreds and beyond; a guideline number not yet reached in the current study. While survey one did have a larger sample (N=321), half of the responses were omitted since they did not return to take survey-2. Participants were informed that the current study involved two surveys, two days apart in order to protect against method-bias; however, participants may not have returned for the second survey for several reasons: (a) participants may have believed the compensation was too small compared to the task, (b) participants may have only been interested in answering questions about leadership on the first survey, and (c) participants may have not remembered or ignored the reminder for the second survey. All of the possible reasons for

the drop off between questionnaire one and questionnaire two resulted in a second response rate of 50.5%.

The third limitation of the current study acknowledges the bias behind asking participants only about their leader presented as an authentic leader for purposes of the study. Previous organizational behavior researchers have pointed toward issues related to only individual-level based research (Baruch & Holtom, 2008; Rousseau, 1985; Schnake & Dumler, 2003; Treville & Antonakis, 2006). Issues include missing out on understanding organizational phenomena across all levels where they can manifest (Schnake & Dumler, 2003), and also only honing in on a single-level, single direction relationship (Baruch & Holtom, 2008). This last issue can be described in leadership research as asking a participant to only rate their current leader (as the current study asked) while not acknowledging that a participant may have multiple current leaders, or had a difficult time differentiating between their current formal leader, and a current informal leader (i.e., being led from different directions). Leadership researchers have also noted that leadership is a multilevel process (Liden, Erdogan, Wayne, & Sparrow, 2006; Yammarino, 2013). Focusing on one level of leadership and one type of leadership style can limit the ability for participants to hone in on only their current leader and also not take into consideration that some participants consider themselves to be led through group interactions, rather than through a single leader (Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang, & Avey, 2009; Liden et al., 2006).

Despite the current research approach being common among leadership questionnaire studies (Bernerth et al., in-press), it does raise the limitation that sport SOC is not fully explained from solely, an authentic leadership perspective. The possibility to compare all four leadership theories to determine which is most likely to influence sport

SOC would provide a more thorough examination of the role leadership has when it comes to sport SOC.

A fourth limitation is that sport SOC was measured by the SCS, which may not be applicable to all sport organizations or contexts. For example, certain dimensions, such as competition, may be more likely to manifest in fitness organizations versus a sport-for-development organization or sport volunteer organization (Kerwin et al., 2015). Contextually, the organizations differ in their objectives and culture. For instance, while studying sport volunteers, Kerwin et al. (2015) removed the competition from their analysis due to poor conceptual fit with a volunteer sample and given that the volunteers were not challenged to internal or external rivalries. Other research has acknowledged such a limitation, specifically for the competition dimension (Pickett et al., 2016). Pickett et al. (2016) removed competition for a similar poor conceptual fit among workout participants. Finally, the sample was collected in a cross-sectional nature. In an online survey environment such as MTurk this may have limited the sample to only those participants on MTurk who were available when the surveys were active. Relaunching the survey at a later date may attract new participants; or offering a longitudinal approach may provide insight into how one's perception of leadership changes over time and how this impacts their sport SOC.

Future Research

There are several future research streams to be undertaken based on the current study as a foundation. First, researchers should further test the SCS among sport employees to more fully determine if contextual limitations are evident, such as those found in previous research with the SCS (Kerwin et al., 2015; Pickett et al., 2016). Despite

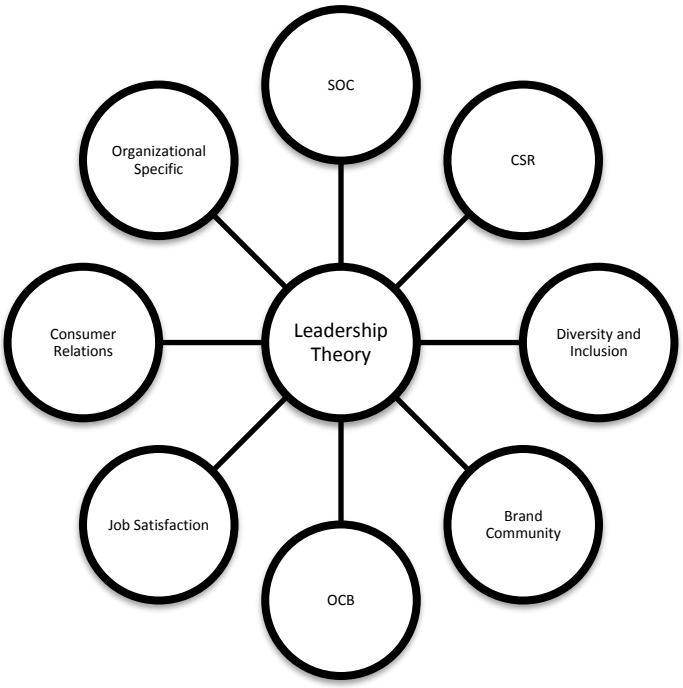
the current study illustrating some testing success with the SCS among sport employees, further research is needed to better determine how the SCS fits among the employee context. The same can be stated for the ALQ. For example, more research using the instrument in sport is needed to determine if the lack of correlation to the SCS is due to the limitations of the current study, or if other outcome variables in sport see a similar lack of correlation to the ALQ dimensions. Researchers should continue to build from current work and prior work on authentic leadership (see Kim, Kim, & Reid, 2017) to determine how the study of authentic leadership theory adds to the leadership literature base in sport management. Such an approach to integrate a relatively understudied theory in sport also falls in line with the current recommendations in the sport management leadership literature (Chelladurai & Kerwin, 2017; Welty Peachey et al., 2015), which espouses to seek new avenues and theories to help understand the leadership processes in sport.

Second, in order to ascertain a more thorough understanding of the specific dimensions of leadership that influence sport SOC, future research should replicate the current study but with transformational, transactional, and servant leadership theories as added independent variables. Such an approach holds potential to find either one standalone leadership theory that is best suited to foster sport SOC or a combination of leadership dimensions from each theory. Future research assessing the relative influence of all four theories on sport SOC would allow sport management researchers the opportunity to compare four prominent leadership theories simultaneously.

The four-leadership theory approach may also be interesting in the context of other dependent variables in sport organizations (i.e., such as diversity and inclusive practices, job satisfaction, brand community, and organization citizenship behavior). Such a research

approach would provide a 'hub and spoke' model of sport leadership (see Figure 5.1). In the hub of the model is each leadership theory (i.e., authentic, transactional, transformational, and servant). Attached to the leadership hub are the outcomes of interest with pathways to detail which leadership theory is most likely to explain that specific outcome. The hub and spoke model of sport leadership would be built through numerous studies, each examining the four leadership approaches to determine which one or combination is likely to influence each outcome.

Figure 5.1. Hub and Spoke Model of Sport Leadership



The foundation for the hub and spoke model of sport leadership is rooted in the augmentation hypothesis. The augmentation hypothesis is based on the argument that a leader may be both transactional and transformational (Bass, 1999; Howell & Avolio, 1993) in a specifically ordered way, where transformational characteristics stem from transactional foundations. While Judge and Piccolo (2004) were the first to coin the term

augmentation hypothesis, the hypothesis has been supported by researchers who have shown transformational leadership to augment the base manifestation of transactional leadership (Bass, 1999; Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995; Judge & Piccolo; 2004). More recently, Grisaffe, VanMeter, and Chonko (2016) extended the augmentation hypothesis by integrating servant leadership into the structure. Specifically, the authors found support that servant leadership augments the transformational-transactional structure. The hub and spoke model of sport leadership proposes adding authentic leadership into the greater augmentation hypothesis structure, specifically at the foundation level. Support for this placement is founded on the point that authentic leadership is often considered a root construct to all leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner et al., 2005; Ladkin & Taylor, 2010). The above premise lends support for repositioning the augmentation hypothesis where all other leadership theories are built upon authentic leadership. From there, various outcomes related to sport organizations are to be studied in order to determine the synthesis of the four leadership approaches best suited to foster desired outcomes.

Third, future research may also examine the relationship of leadership and sport SOC by positioning SOC as an intervening variable. A majority of the sport SOC research has only sought out SOC as either an independent variable or dependent variable. A fitting inquiry to use sport SOC beyond an independent or dependent variable would be to examine if sport SOC mediates the relationship between authentic leadership and authentic follower development. Authentic follower development has been mentioned as a noteworthy endeavor to explore (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner et al., 2011) with little progress made other than conceptualizations. Similarly, SOC has been presented as an

avenue for individuals to embrace their authentic selves (Albanesi et al., 2007; McMillan, 1996), yet work on connecting the two concepts (i.e., SOC and authentic development) has remained largely unexplored. Framing the above inquiry in sport would prove to be beneficial given again, sport's standing as an institution to foster SOC.

Last, while the aforementioned research direction would be one attempt to uncover authentic follower development, a way to determine and track follower development into a leader remains mostly devoid in sport management leadership research (Welty Peachey et al., 2015). To this point, researchers interested in addressing the leader development gap should explore employing a sociogram approach in order to quantify interactions between leaders and followers. Traditionally used as a tool to help with social network analysis in sport (Hambrick, 2012; Quatman & Chelladurai, 2008), the sociogram has been used to track interactions among top-management-teams (TMT) (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007), and interactions among nurses during focus groups (Drahota & Dewey, 2008). The same approach can be undertaken in order to track interactions among sport TMTs with a specific focus on quantifying how follower interactions change over time. The interaction numbers can then be triangulated with survey and qualitative data to uncover various leader-follower processes that otherwise may have been missed by current research approaches.

Conclusions

The results from the current study show how authentic leadership is associated with sport SOC. Specifically, two sport SOC dimensions are significantly influenced by authentic leadership relational transparency, and self-awareness. Based on the results, it has been recommended that continued research into how other leadership theories

influence and are associated with sport SOC is undertaken to create a more robust understanding of what leadership fosters sport SOC. The current study offers insight into sport employees and their sport SOC through an authentic leadership lens. Future research should build on the current study and investigate further how authentic leadership contributes to sport management's leadership literature and outcomes. Overall, the current study has illustrated authentic leadership as a useful theory in the sport management discourse and has contributed to furthering both the leadership and sport SOC lines of literature.

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APPENDIX A

SURVEY ONE: DEMOGRAPHIC AND ALQ

Section 1. Throughout this survey, the term leader is meant as your most current supervisor.

Which would best describe your current leader:

- ❍ African American
- ❍ Native American
- ❍ Caucasian
- ❍ Asian
- ❍ Asian-American
- ❍ Hispanic
- ❍ Other _____

Please choose the option which best describe your current leader:

- ❍ Male
- ❍ Female
- ❍ Rather Not Say

Please tell us your leader's age (in years): _____
How long has your leader been employed at your current organization? (in years)
_____
What best describes your current leader's position?

- ❍ Top manager
- ❍ Mid-level manager
- ❍ Non-manager, top-level employee: _____
- ❍ Non-manager, mid-level employee: _____
- ❍ Non-manager, entry-level employee: _____
- ❍ Other: _____

Which of the following best describes your leader's annual income level?

- ❍ Less than $50,000
- ❍ $50,000-$75,000
- ❍ $75,000-$100,000
- ❍ $100,000 and over
- ❍ Not comfortable answering

- ❍ Not sure

Section 2.
Which would best describe yourself:
- ❍ African American
- ❍ Native American
- ❍ Caucasian
- ❍ Asian
- ❍ Asian-American
- ❍ Hispanic
- ❍ Other _____

Please choose the option which best describe you:
- ❍ Male
- ❍ Female
- ❍ Rather Not Say

Please tell us your age (in years): _____
How long have you been employed at your current organization? (in years) _____
Approximately how many employees does your current organization have? _____
What best describes your current position?
- ❍ Top manager
- ❍ Mid-level manager
- ❍ Non-manager, top-level employee: _____
- ❍ Non-manager, mid-level employee: _____
- ❍ Non-manager, entry-level employee: _____
- ❍ Other: _____

Which of the following best describes your annual income level?
- ❍ Less than $50,000
- ❍ $50,000-$75,000
- ❍ $75,000-$100,000
- ❍ $100,000 and over
- ❍ Not comfortable answering

Which best describes your current organization?
- For-profit
- Not-for profit

Which of the following best describes the business sector your organization operates in?
- Professional sport team or league
- Intercollegiate sport

- Recreation or tourism
- Sport-for-development
- Sporting-goods provider

The following survey items refer to your leader's style, as you perceive it. Judge how frequently each statement fits his or her leadership style using the following: 0 not at all, 1 once in a while, 2 sometimes, 3 fairly often, and 4 frequently.

- My leader says exactly what he or she means. 0-1-2-3-4
- My leader admits mistakes when they are made. 0-1-2-3-4
- My leader encourages everyone to speak their mind. 0-1-2-3-4

APPENDIX B

SURVEY TWO: SENSE OF COMMUNITY IN SPORT SCALE

The following survey items refer to your current sport organization (1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= somewhat disagree, 4= neither agree or disagree, 5= somewhat agree, 6= agree, and 7= strongly agree).

		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1.	Leaders of my organization care about their employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Leaders of my organization support their employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I feel comfortable talking openly with the leaders of my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	The leaders make me feel like a valued employee of my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	I share similar values with other employees at my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I feel like I belong in my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	Working for my organization provides me with friends who share a strong commitment to my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Leaders in my organization make decisions that benefit everyone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	Leaders in my organization make decisions that are fair.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Leaders in my organization consider everyone's needs when making	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	I have influence over what my organization is like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	If there is a problem in my organization, I can help to solve it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	I have a say about what goes on in my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	Being an employee of my organization gives me opportunities to lead.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	When going to my organization, there are places where I can interact with other employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	When going to my organization, I know I'll have an area where I can interact with other employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	My organization creates a place for me to interact with other employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	My organization provides me a place to interact with other employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	The competitiveness of my organization helps me bond with other employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	I like the level of competition in my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	Competing with other members in my organization is fun.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7